The Nation.

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The Week.

MAINE has secured a ballot-reform law after all, both houses of the Legislature having passed it, and the Governor being committed in his annual message to give it his approval. The victory is complete in every way, for the new law applies to every city, town, and village in the State. The history of the two months' struggle for it in the Legislature constitutes an instructive argument against compromises in reform movements. The bill, as finally passed, was first presented in the lower house. It was supported by the united Democratic membership, by the united Democratic press of the State, and by nearly the united Republican press of the State. Its leading opponent was Capt. Boutelle of the Bangor *Whig*, who argued that Republicans should defeat it because it would work to the disadvantage of their party were it to be made a law. In deference to Republican wishes, the bill was amended in Committee of the House so as to apply only to cities and towns of more than 2,000 inhabitants, and so as to have the names of candidates arranged in party groups on the ballots. It was said that these changes would strengthen the bill with the Republican majority. Yet, when it came before the House in amended form, the Republican majority defeated it by a vote of 74 to 71, more than two-thirds of their members voting against it. The bill was then taken up by the Senate and passed in nearly its original form. It went back to the House from the Senate, and was passed by a vote of 76 to 60, ten Republicans changing their position after the former adverse vote.

The law, while closely modelled upon the Massachusetts law, contains one provision radically different from the corresponding provision in the latter statute. In Massachusetts the names of all candidates are arranged in alphabetical order under each office, with their politics indicated after each name, and the voter is required to check the name of every candidate for whom he wishes to vote. Under the Maine law the names of candidates are arranged in party groups, with the party name at the top, and the voter can, if he choose, vote for an entire group by placing a cross opposite this party name. This is the method provided in the Indiana and Maryland laws, and is, of course, in the interest of straight party voting. It is, however, superior in every way to our New York system of innumerable separate ballots and "pasters," and while it helps the party voter, it also helps the independent voter, for with the names of all candidates of all parties spread on one ballot, he can easily select those of his choice.

Illinois is likely to be the next State, the twenty-third, to adopt a ballot-reform law. An excellent measure, following closely the lines of the Massachusetts Law, prepared by the Committee of Elections of the lower house of the Legislature, was introduced in that body on Tuesday week. It is the outcome of long and careful study by the Committee, and has been agreed upon unanimously by its members without regard to politics. There were between fifteen and twenty bills on the subject referred to the Committee, the large number bearing unmistakable evidence of the popular demand for the reform. There is said to be little doubt of its passage through both houses, as the leaders of all parties are in its favor; and an emergency clause will be added in order that the bill may go into effect immediately, and thus apply to the judicial elections which occur in June. In order to pass it with such a clause a two-thirds vote in both houses will be necessary; but so popular is the measure that little fear is expressed about getting this strong support.

The Republicans of the Pennsylvania Legislature are so lukewarm upon the subject of ballot reform that the Philadelphia *Press* is exhorting its readers to bombard their Senators and Representatives with letters and petitions in favor of a bill which is pending, but which finds little earnest support. The Republican party leaders are also occupying a questionable attitude towards the reform. It is claimed by the friends of the movement that, in order to be successful, the adoption of the Australian method ought to be accompanied by the adoption of a personal-registration law, and in this they are occupying impregnable ground. Personal registration has been recognized in every State as an absolutely necessary foundation upon which to base the reform. Yet the Republican leaders in Pennsylvania say that personal registration disfranchises thousands of intelligent voters, and is, therefore, not only unnecessary, but harmful. Mr. Thomas V. Cooper, ex-Chairman of the Republican State Committee, leads this opposition, and in a recent interview made this remarkable statement: "I am opposed to it. It would disfranchise 20 per cent. of the voters in both parties. You would find under a personal-registration law that the better class of citizens would not take the trouble to register, and would therefore lose their vote. In New York city, where they have a personal registration, I believe that at least 30 per cent. of the Republican vote is disfranchised, and it is the better element of the community." Mr. Cooper takes a view of the working of personal registration in this city which is new in this region. The difficulty generally recognized here is not in getting the better element to register, but in getting it to take the trouble to vote afterwards. Thirty thousand or more who registered last fall stayed away from the polls on election day, and there is always a falling off of at least 10 per cent. The object of personal registration is to stop repeating, and this is what it has accomplished perfectly in every city in which it has been tried, and there is no room to doubt that it would stop it in the great Republican city of Philadelphia if Mr. Cooper and his fellow Republican leaders would consent to have it tried.

One would suppose that if there were one book only in the English language that an American Pirate would respect, it would be Bryce's 'American Commonwealth.' There is no American of any party who knows anything of it who does not feel himself under obligations to Mr. Bryce for writing it, and it was generally believed when it first appeared that even the Pirate, hardened as he is, would be willing that Mr. Bryce should get whatever pecuniary reward for his labor might be forthcoming from the sale of the book in this country. To rob him seemed too base a thing even for the lowest grade of Pirate, even for the one who put in the Algerine demurrer, alleging that anybody who mingled American matter with foreign matter in a book so that it could not be stolen with impunity, was guilty of a wrong on American Christians meriting reprobation by the courts. But apparently the basest and meanest Pirate has not until now come to light, for a Chicago Pirate is going to steal Mr. Bryce's book by the aid of the photographic process which has already made possible the Wanamaker, Funk, Ehrich, and other thefts. This bold attempt is doubtless precipitated by the passage of the Copyright Bill, and we are likely to hear of others before next July—indeed, Funk & Wagnalls have, since we began writing, come out in competition with Sergel & Co. "Now or never" is probably the cry in many a Pirate's cave. In three months more they will have to pay for all the goods they deal in, and the prospect is naturally bitter, and as much hay as possible must be made while the sun shines.

The fraudulent reprint of Mr. Bryce's book cannot be issued in complete form on account of the copyrighted chapters, but the danger is that a careless public may not take this into account, and may buy the piratical edition, thinking it to be as accurate and complete as Dr. Funk says his "Allen reprint" is. A cheap author's edition is now in process of production, and will be issued in a very few days, and we trust that all Americans who, besides being honorable men and women themselves, are concerned for the honor of their country, and have still to provide themselves with a copy of Mr. Bryce's book, will see to it that they get an honest as well as a complete copy. Mr. Freeman must not imagine that the Chicago Pirate's aim in getting out his edition is to spread Mr. Bryce's fame, or to increase the circulation of the book

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in order to aid in the cultivation of the American people. Some Pirates call all this "metaphysics," and others "poppycock." What they seek is a handsome pecuniary profit on each copy sold, and they would just as soon photograph and sell the 'Newgate Calendar' as the 'American Commonwealth,' if they could make as much money out of it. Moralists who are trying to put down theft in any form must be as careful to free themselves from illusions as thieves always are.

The Boston *Journal of Commerce* learns that Judge Lawrence, the Chief of the Ohio Wool-Growers' Association, has begun to worry the carpet-manufacturers again by demanding that the wool-sorting clause of the McKinley tariff shall be applied to wools of the third class. This clause provides that if any wool has been sorted or increased in value by rejecting any part of the original fleece, the rate of duty shall be twice what it otherwise would be. This provision requires that somebody, presumably the United States Consul at the foreign port, shall penetrate into the interior of the country where the wool is produced, and ascertain whether the shepherds, in making up their packages, reject "any part of the original fleece." If they do, then the duty is to be "twice the duty to which it would be *otherwise* subject." "Otherwise," the *Journal of Commerce* contends, means the duty on unsorted wool. But if there is no unsorted wool brought to market, how is its value to be determined? Wools of the third class are subject to ad-valorem, not specific duties. Shall the Consul guess at the value of an article that is not sold in the market at all? It is a very interesting state of things indeed, and it is made more so by another push that we understand Judge Lawrence is making, namely, to have all wool classed as clothing wool that *can be* used for the manufacture of clothing. If the Judge perseveres, he will, no doubt, make it a penal offence to import any wool into this country for any purpose whatever and at any rate of duty whatever. Protection is justified of her children.

Gov. Davis of Rhode Island, who is a Democratic official of the ordinary kind, that is to say, is holding only one public office at a time, is not able to agree with Gov. Hill upon the question of deciding the rights of the Governors of other States to the office whose duties they are exercising. He has, therefore, consented to receive and honor a requisition from Gov. Bulkeley of Connecticut for the surrender of a fugitive from justice, and in doing so says: "As Bulkeley is in possession of the official seals, Bulkeley is Governor *de facto*, and I do not feel that I can properly decline to recognize him as the Executive." Personally, Gov. Davis says, he thinks Judge Morris is the lawful Governor, but, as he is not in possession of the office and its seals, he cannot send requisitions. "I have heard all the arguments about Gov. Hill," adds Gov. Davis, "but my conduct is not to be regulated by the conduct of any other man. At Albany these points may appear different from the way we look at them in Providence." That is the secret of the difference in the conduct of the two men—it lies in the point of view. Gov. Hill is under the impression that he is a Presidential candidate, and his point of view is that he can acquire capital for himself in that capacity by making New York State a safe harbor of refuge for criminals.

Valuable testimony to the progress of the Georgia negroes is furnished by the Atlanta *Constitution*. It says that there is a growing tendency on their part to "take care of themselves"—to be independent and "hoe their own row." As an illustration of this tendency it notes the fact that the negroes in a number of Georgia cities have for some time past been making strenuous efforts to secure the location of a proposed negro college; and that, while generally, when they have schemes of that character in hand—or schemes of any kind, for that matter—they appeal to the whites for aid, in this instance (and notably in Americus) they evinced a disposition to be more independent, and in Americus refused offers of aid from the white people and made up the money among themselves. This is certainly a most hopeful sign, and it is only one of many which are to be seen in various parts of the South. Hitherto this disposition to rely upon themselves has been checked by the feeling, which Republican politicians have so sedulously cultivated, that the negroes were still "wards of the nation," who could not take care of themselves; but with the general recognition that they must hereafter be regarded merely as citizens, this demoralizing influence will be removed, and their progress will be more rapid than ever before.

That was a shameful scene at Pittsburgh on Sunday when a number of Chinamen, while engaged in burying a fellow-countryman according to the rites of their religion, were attacked by a great mob of hoodlums, who snatched the burning joss sticks, perfumed paper, and printed prayers placed beside the grave, and jeered and howled at the mourners. But, after all, it was not so discreditable a performance as the sending by the United States Government as Minister to China of a man who, as a member of the Senate, has expressed supreme contempt for the whole race of Chinese. The Pittsburgh mob was composed of ruffians whose acts are condemned by the decent people of the city; but the insult of Mr. Blair's appointment as Minister to China cannot be thus easily explained away. It was the deliberate act of the Government of the nation, and its grossness can only be comprehended when we put ourselves in the place of the Chinese, and think how we should feel if that empire should send as Minister to the United States a Chinaman who had abused the people of this country, and declared their migration to China comparable to an outbreak of yellow fever.

It would be difficult to express in language that would not seem extravagant, our sense of the loss which this city has sustained in Dr. Crosby's death. He was not simply a good man. He was a good man who was willing to spend himself without limit in the public service. He journeyed, wrote, talked, persuaded, inveighed, explained, and defended in the service of every movement which seemed likely to make New York a purer, more wholesome, and more comfortable dwelling-place for rich and poor. In all his work, too, his judgment was in the main sound—something which cannot always be said for the zealous and energetic. He seldom made mistakes, and when he did make them, he never had any hesitation in confessing them. He was a scholar from his youth, and, what is still more, kept up his scholarship to the end in spite of the thousand distractions of his pastorship and of a very steady attention to public affairs. In spite, too, of the innumerable antagonisms into which any man who tries to "make reason and the will of God prevail" in a city like this, we feel sure he made no enemies except among criminals. He was, in short, one of the most valuable citizens we had, and he has been taken away at a time when his influence was most sorely needed.

We find a great many little ten-line paragraphs in our Republican contemporaries chuckling over Mr. Phelps's article and announcing that he is "conclusive." But we look, and have looked in vain for months, for any discussion of the subject by these publicists themselves, with any knowledge or sign of knowledge. They all cry "Ditto" to Mr. Blaine, and "Ditto" to Mr. Phelps, but they apparently have no better reason for saying "Ditto" in each case than children would have in a primary school for agreeing with the teacher about the virtues of ass's milk in consumption. It is sad to see so many counsellors of the public in this helpless condition. Neither Mr. Blaine nor Mr. Phelps can feel flattered by such adhesions. The concurrence of one man who knows or professes to know something about the matter in hand is worth more to a Sage or Philosopher than the huzzas of 10,000 ignoramuses. Has any such man come forward to back them up about the "bonos mores," and the *mare clausum*, and the ocean game laws? None that we know of.

One of the legal authorities of repute who will have to be rewritten if the Blaine-Phelps doctrine about the ownership of animals *feræ naturæ* is accepted, is Blackstone. As Mr. Phelps lays down the law in regard to Bering Sea seals: "This colony of seals, making their home on American soil, and unable to exist without a home on some soil, belong to the owners of the soil, and are part of their property, and do not lose this quality by passing from one part of the territory to another in a regular and periodical migration necessary to their life, even though in making it they pass temporarily through water

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that is more than three miles from land." Blackstone has a good deal to say about the ownership of wild animals, beginning with the proposition that they are common property unless under certain restraints and conditions. Noting the individual ownership of wild animals that have been tamed, he says:

"In all these creatures, reclaimed from the wildness of their nature, the property is not absolute but defeasible—a property that may be destroyed if they resume their ancient wildness and are found at large. For if the pheasants escape from the mew, or the fishes from the trunk, *and are seen wandering at large, in their proper element, they become feræ naturæ again, and are free and open to the first occupant that hath ability to seize them.*"

Again, in treating of the individual right to the young of such wild animals as make their nests or breeding-holes on one's land, he says: "I have a qualified property in those young ones *till such time as they can fly or run away, and then my property expires.*" This covers the case of young seals exactly. Once more. In discussing the ownership of game on one's property, Blackstone says that the game animals belong to the owner of the soil "so long as they continue within his liberty; *but the instant they depart into another liberty this qualified property ceases.*" What is wanted now by believers in the soundness of Blackstone is some legal citation to show that national rights to animals *feræ naturæ* differ from individual rights. We have been unable to find any. We presume Yale College still gets some of its common law from Blackstone.

The arrangements for the settlement by arbitration of the difficulty between France and England over the French lobster fishery in Newfoundland have all been completed, and the three arbitrators have been chosen. These are M. de Martens, Professor of the Law of Nations in the University of St. Petersburg; M. Rivier, Swiss Consul-General at Brussels, and President of the Institute of International Law; and M. Gram, ex-judge of the Supreme Court of Norway. In addition to these there are to be two delegates from each of the parties to the controversy, who will form the medium of communication between the Governments and the arbitrators, but they are to sit and vote with the arbitrators, and every question is to be decided without appeal by a majority of the seven. In the negotiations which preceded this arrangement, Lord Salisbury pleaded hard either for the surrender of the "French Shore" altogether to the colony by France, in consideration of free bait for the French fishermen and the payment of a pecuniary indemnity, or for the reference to the arbitrators of the whole question of the reasonableness and expediency of French claims in Newfoundland, and of the best mode of extinguishing them. M. Ribot, however, positively refused to submit anything but the question whether lobster fisheries, as well as cod, were covered by the Treaties of Utrecht (1743), of Paris (1763), and of Versailles (1783). This settlement by no means gets the British Ministry out of hot water. The Newfoundlanders are indignant over the restriction of the arbitration to lobsters. They demand complete release from French occupation of their soil, conceded over a century ago, when, as Lord Salisbury says, "the coast in question was almost uninhabited, and the two contracting parties considered Newfoundland simply a fishing ground." They maintain—and Lord Salisbury argued the case for them very well — that the circumstances have changed so completely since the treaty was made, and the advantages France obtains under it are so small, that it is monstrous to insist on its maintenance. Doubtless M. Ribot sees all this as well as they do, but public opinion in France would not permit his surrendering French rights for a money compensation from Newfoundland. The French confidently expect to use the affair to get something more valuable than money from England.

The question of rescinding the decree which excludes American pork from Germany is still under consideration by the Imperial Government. When Caprivi succeeded Bismarck as Chancellor, this was one of the first subjects to engage the attention of the new Ministry. They were not committed, as Bismarck had been, to any particular policy. They were as free to make a change here as in any other branch of public affairs, and they were favorably disposed towards the United States. Of course such a step could not be taken instantly. It must be preceded, for appearance sake, by a certain amount of bureaucratic investigation and red tape, but the intention to rescind nevertheless existed. While things were in this favorable trim along came the McKinley bills, both of them—one putting new and exasperating obstacles in the way of German exports, the other increasing duties to a monstrous degree. These measures barred the way for the new Chancellor. They raised up new enemies to his intended policy, and armed the opponents of it, the landed proprietors, with new weapons. Bismarck himself was not slow to see the opportunity that McKinley had thrown in his way to embarrass his successor. We have the best authority for saying that this is the real reason why the decree against American pork has not been rescinded.

During the past month there have been numerous press despatches from Madrid implying that negotiations were going on between our special envoy, Mr. Foster, and the Spanish Government touching a treaty for reciprocity between the United States and Cuba. The word treaty is hardly applicable in this case, because all treaties between the United States and foreign countries have to be ratified by the Senate. The present negotiation will not require ratification, any more than the Brazil arrangement did. It is a one-sided affair altogether, based upon the McKinley Bill. Under that measure the President has the power to reimpose the duties on raw sugar coming from any country which, in his estimation, is not trading fairly with us. Now, Spain is a protectionist country. Cuba is a part of the kingdom for all fiscal purposes as much as California is a part of the United States. The Spanish millers have an advantage over our millers in trading with Cuba, just as our cotton-manufacturers have an advantage over the English in trading with California. The Spanish millers are stoutly opposing the thing called reciprocity that Mr. Foster offers them. Very likely their opposition will be effectual. Then the question will arise in the Cabinet council at Washington whether the duty on raw sugar from Cuba shall be reimposed or not. If it is reimposed, that will be equivalent to a denial of free sugar, about which we have heard so much boasting from the McKinleyites. This will be the effect, because Cuba and Porto Rico supply the larger part of our raw sugar. In 1889 our total imports of cane sugar were $69,000,000 worth, of which Cuba supplied $36,000,000 and Porto Rico $2,700,000. The Philippine Islands sent us $4,000,000 worth. Our total importations of beet sugar amounted to $7,000,000. It is plain, therefore, that a reënactment of the duties on sugar from Cuba would be equivalent to a denial of free sugar to American consumers. It would be more than that: it would be equivalent to a large donation to other sugar-producing countries; it would operate towards those countries exactly as the admission of Hawaiian sugar free of duty operated towards the Hawaiian Islands. Perhaps the Spanish statesmen are able to see Mr. Harrison's dilemma as well as other people.

In all the large towns of Ireland Parnell seems to have a small and enterprising mob at his disposal who make it lively for his opponents, who in turn contribute to the disorder. That this state of things does not depress the English Home-Rulers more is probably due to the consideration that this is the first real political contest that has taken place in Ireland since the Union. All previous Irish elections have been sham battles which were not to have any more effect on Irish legislation than on that of Holland. The Irish voters are now, for the first time in their history, exerting a real influence on the fortunes of their own country, and it is almost unreasonable to expect, considering the bellicose habits of the population, that they should pass through an experience so novel without a little cudgel play. Dalton's pummelling Healy in order (probably) to prevent his appearing on the stump in Sligo, shows the meeting of the two régimes—the old and the new. Healy was pummelled partly under the influence of the old Irish tradition that a political opponent ought to have his head broken; but the incident also contained an admission that persuasion had become a great force in the land, and that Healy was a powerful persuader. It is not so very long since it would, even in England, have been considered "good politics" to keep an opponent away from the hustings by engaging him in a standing fight under the rules of the ring as they existed for the time being.

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MORALITY IN DIPLOMACY.

Most of the points in Mr. Phelps's late article in *Harper's Monthly*, in so far as they are points of international law, will be before long disposed of by the Supreme Court or by the arbitrators, so that there is little use in arguing them further in the columns of a newspaper. But there is one passage in the article which has an abiding interest, especially for that younger generation which is now trying to rid American politics of corruption under the various forms of bribery, lying, and cheating. It is this:

"In this, as in all other international controversies, one remark holds good: a nation divided against itself can never achieve a diplomatic success. A government that is not backed up by the unanimous sentiment of its people, but is opposed in its dealings with foreign nations by a large share of the best intelligence of its own country, if not in the ends it seeks, at least in all the means it takes to obtain them, will never be a formidable figure in diplomacy, especially when its force is found to expend itself in argument rather than in action. To peruse the discussions of most questions of this sort in the American press would lead the unlearned reader to conclude that one proposition in international law, at least, can be regarded as settled; that is, that whatever is asserted by our own Government is necessarily wrong. This point is readily conceded by our adversaries, but tends more to simplify disputes than to conduct them to results favorable to our own side. If our Government is demanding what is wrong, the demand should at once be abandoned. If it is claiming what is right, and what is worth claiming, it should receive the support of all parties, whether all the points taken, and all the arguments by which it endeavors to support its case, prove universally convincing or not. The task of refuting them may be well enough left to the other side. In the course of this controversy, very little has appeared in print in the United States which tends to support our Government, or to indicate that American public sentiment sustains it. But much ability and learning have been devoted to answering the arguments and disproving the facts upon which the Government has relied. The authors can have the satisfaction of knowing that all these contributions to the British side of the discussion are promptly put on file in her Majesty's Foreign Office, and will not fail of their effect. Great Britain affords us no corresponding advantage. Not a word has been uttered or printed in that country, so far as is known, against the Canadian contention, or in support of that of the United States."

At first sight, Mr. Phelps's contention here seems to be that a good citizen should in all cases "back up" his own Government in a controversy with a foreign Government; and the only way in which a good citizen can "back up" his Government in such a controversy is by maintaining against all comers that all propositions of law or fact produced by his own Minister of Foreign Affairs are absolutely correct, and that the object aimed at is just and laudable. But on looking at the passage a little more closely, we see that he does not ask anything so monstrous of the good citizen. He does not say that a good man must, whenever his country gets into a controversy with a foreign nation, place his conscience and intelligence absolutely at the disposal of the person who happens at the time being to have charge of the State Department, for he does not maintain that in all such controversies our Government is sure to be in the right. He says, "If our Government is demanding what is wrong, the demand should at once be abandoned"; that is, he admits that governments—our own included—do sometimes make demands on foreigners which are "wrong." By wrong we presume he means demands which are not justified by the rules of international law, or are not justified by the evidence of facts in the case, or are in some way opposed to the rules of Christian morality under which all civilized nations now live. We see thus that there are three distinct varieties of wrong, any one of which may taint a demand on a foreign State, and make necessary, according to Mr. Phelps, an immediate abandonment of the demand.

But here comes a very curious hiatus in the argument. He does not tell us how the quality of the demand made by our Government is to be ascertained, or how, if wrong, its abandonment is to be brought about, for he absolutely forbids public discussion of it by the citizen through either press or platform, or through any channel which will carry a knowledge of the discussion to the foreigner. Salisbury must not be allowed to hear that some Americans think that Blaine is mistaken, and Blaine must not be allowed to hear that all Englishmen do not agree with Salisbury. By "discussion" we mean, of course, the public presentation of the pros and cons of the dispute; not simply laudation of the despatches written on our side, but a public examination of the law and the facts by competent lookers-on. You must not say things which will throw discredit on your own man. You must back him up, no matter how much you may think him mistaken. You must talk as if your Government were engaged in actual war and the national existence were at stake. How, then, is the Government to find out that it is demanding something wrong; and on what compulsion, the discovery made, is it to confess its error and apologize to its antagonist? Mr. Phelps is too shrewd a man to believe that human nature has made arrangements for the performance of these acts of contrition by Secretaries of State themselves on the promptings of their own conscience, in the midst of exciting disputes.

Perhaps the oddest thing in Mr. Phelps's position is that not only does he not provide us with the means of judging whether the diplomatic demands of a Government are right or wrong, but he has apparently provided none for himself. He intimates that we ought all to have supported Mr. Blaine in the present dispute, but does not tell us how we could have known whether Mr. Blaine's position was sound or not. It is possible, surely, that Blaine has not been "claiming what is right," and yet there must be some portion of the community competent to find it out. Mr. Blaine has not been transformed since he took the Secretaryship of State. Therefore let us ask how it happens that the fact "that in the course of this controversy very little has appeared in print in the United States to support our Government, or to indicate that American public sentiment sustains it," while "much ability and learning have been devoted to answering the arguments and disproving the facts upon which the Government has relied" has not made more impression on Mr. Phelps. Is it not possible that "American public sentiment does not sustain" Mr. Blaine? Is it not also possible that the reason why no "ability and learning have been devoted" to backing him up is, that the Americans who have ability and learning at command for such service think his position untenable? Is there not in this very situation as Mr. Phelps describes it enough and more than enough to put a prudent man on his guard against Mr. Blaine's diplomacy? Has not Mr. Phelps been taking on himself a tremendous responsibility in advising Mr. Blaine to risk war in support of a case which he acknowledges has received no sign of support from that portion of the American community which best understands it?

Mr. Phelps knows one very important fact in the history of diplomacy. We may not, in our time agree by any means with that biting epigram, that "ambassadors were men sent to lie abroad for their country." Things have improved since that was uttered. But he knows perfectly well that ministers of foreign affairs are not chosen in our own country, or in any other either, for their high character, or their great learning, or their keen sense of right and wrong, or their special fitness for the place. In popular governments like ours and that of England and of France, the ministers of foreign affairs are men who have succeeded by hook or by crook in domestic politics in acquiring a title to a high place of some kind in the government when their party comes into power. Their accession to that particular office does not elevate or purify them. Mr. Blaine is not noted for his truthfulness or scrupulousness. Neither is Lord Salisbury. Neither of them is suspected of having the slightest hesitation in using the foreign policy of his country to help his party or himself in home politics. Lord Salisbury has done it; so has Mr. Blaine.

What Mr. Phelps proposes to his fellow-citizens, and to the youths whom he is instructing, is, that when two men of this description, who happen to have got hold of the foreign offices of their respective countries, start a dispute of any sort about land or water, fish, flesh, or fowl, the duty of the taxpayers who pay the expenses of the quarrel, and may be called on to sacrifice their lives in it, is simply to "back up" their arguments—that is, to profess to believe all their assertions, whether they believe them or not; to accept all their law whether they think it bad or not; to swallow their interpretations whether they think them erroneous or not, if they speak out at all; or else to keep silent, while a man whom they may consider a charlatan, without either patriotism or convictions or knowledge, is carrying their country straight to a bloody war. Under what code of morality is this justifiable?

There was a time when this view was generally accepted, but it was the time when war was considered the chief business of a government, when the Ingalls view of political morality controlled international intercourse, and when all international disputes—even the loss of Capt. Jenkins's ears were considered sufficient cause for a re-

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sort to arms. But it was a good while ago. Mr. Phelps is fully a century behind the age. With the appearance of the United States on the scene as a state without hated neighbors, without warlike traditions, without a governing class, with the utmost publicity thrown over the whole administrative machinery, and with every act and resolution and even impulse created or directed by the freest discussion—secret, lying, perverting, equivocating diplomacy received a serious blow. It did not vanish from the earth, it is true, because diplomatists have still to be men, but it placed over them a watchful, moral, religious, and intelligent public, to pronounce on the reasonableness and lawfulness of their acts, and to follow every step of their discussion with the criticisms and suggestions of that best class of citizens—honest men—who will neither do wrong themselves, nor knowingly allow it to be done in their name by others.

There are two fine lines of Lowell's, in his "Epistle to George William Curtis," which, as they contain an immortal truth, are worth recalling every day in the week:

"For never land long lease of empire won
Whose sons sate silent when base deeds were done."

We feel sure that if Mr. Phelps had considered the matter historically, he would never have asked his countrymen to surrender their political conscience to Mr. Blaine's keeping. He would have remembered that he could not enter a portrait gallery in France or England, or in his own country, in which some great man who had stood out against wicked diplomacy would not look down on him with dissent. He would see Burke and Chatham, who opposed the attempt to subjugate the colonies, and Fox and Mackintosh, who opposed the attempt to subjugate France. He would see Cobden and Bright, who opposed the Crimean war. He would see Gladstone and Morley and Argyll and Goschen, who opposed the Afghan war. He would see Thiers and Gambetta, who opposed the German war. In our own country he would see Adams and Hale and Giddings and many others, who opposed the Mexican war. All these men wished their country, as Mr. Phelps does, to make "a formidable figure in diplomacy," but a figure formidable because "its armor was its honest thought and simple truth its highest skill."

THE NEW BERING-SEA POLICY OF 1886.

AN inquiry by the *Evening Post*, begun to ascertain the date when the interpretation of the laws of 1868 and 1870, relating to fur seals, and the method of executing those laws, were changed by the President or the Secretary of the Treasury, has thrown the partisans of Mr. Blaine into a paroxysm of rage.

The law of 1868 commanded the Secretary of the Treasury "to prevent the killing of any fur seal" within the limits of Alaska Territory "or in the waters thereof." The law of 1869 made our Pribyloff islands "a special reservation for Government purposes," and forbade any one to land or remain thereon excepting by authority of the Treasury. The law of 1870 authorized a lease of the islands to "The Alaska Commercial Company," and made it unlawful to kill any fur seal thereon, or "in the waters adjacent to the said islands," unless during certain months and under regulations provided for in the law. On August 3, 1870, a lease of the islands to the company was signed, in behalf of the Treasury, by Assistant Secretary Richardson. Secretary Boutwell was opposed to the monopoly, and conveniently absented himself from Washington when the lease was to be executed.

The law of 1870 and the lease permitted the killing of fur seals. The law of 1868 had peremptorily forbidden it anywhere and everywhere in Alaska. The law of 1870 and the lease necessarily, therefore, required modification of the interpretation of the law of 1868 left standing, and of its execution.

So far as we can discover, President Grant, who was responsible for the faithful execution by the Treasury of the laws of 1868 and 1870, decided that the revenue cutters were only to defend the islands and "adjacent" waters from fur-seal killing by any persons excepting the lessees. Boutwell's letter of 1872, doubtless written under the supervision of Secretary Fish, conforms to that decision. When the three Canadian vessels had been seized, in August, 1886, Admiral Seymour cabled the Admiralty that those vessels had, for three years, without interference, and "*in company with Corwin,*" the seizor, killed fur seals in Bering Sea. Up to that time only two vessels, one German and one American, had been seized, and in both cases for killing *on land* done by the crews, and not for killing on the water. Up to 1886, the efforts of revenue cutters and Treasury agents had been limited to those persons attempting "to poach upon the Federal preserve," as defined in the law of 1869. The first three Canadian vessels seized on August 1, 1886, were charged with killing seals a great distance from any land; Lord Iddesleigh complained to Mr. Bayard early in the next October, but, on January 12, 1887, the latter replied that the "circumstances attendant on their seizure" were then unknown to him, although five months had elapsed.

In a report to Washington, in 1886, by the Governor of Alaska is a significant allusion to the seizing of the three vessels by the "zealous and meritorious commander" of the *Corwin*, and to the necessity of protecting the seals "on their way to and from their breeding-places." In that report is the first suggestion and development of the theories and the interpretation of the statutes of 1868 and 1870, which are now used to uphold seizures outside of the marine league or in waters not adjacent to our islands. On March 2, 1887, an American firm in San Francisco (Handy & Co.) remonstrated by letter with President Cleveland for the seizure of their vessels for killing seals in the open waters of Bering Sea, and declared that, under the decision of United States Judge Deady (4 Sawyer's Reports, 105), of Secretary Boutwell, 1872, and the permission implied by the knowledge of the cruising revenue cutters and their abstinence from interference till 1886, "every citizen had a right to fish for fur seals in the waters of Bering Sea when distant a full marine league from the shore." That letter was printed in the New York *Herald* of March 17, 1887.

The evidence is overwhelming that, during the Administration of Grant — in whose time the laws were enacted, the lease made, and the due execution of the laws provided for—and presumably under the watchful eye of Secretary Hamilton Fish, there was no thought of seizing outside of three miles from land for killing done outside of that limit. Boutwell's letter of 1872 fits that theory perfectly. Neither President Hayes, nor Garfield, nor Arthur changed the policy. Nor did Secretaries of State Evarts, Blaine, or Frelinghuysen, or Secretaries of the Treasury Richardson, Bristow, Morrill, Sherman, Windom, Folger, Gresham. But suddenly, in 1886, came a change of policy and a new interpretation of the statutes of 1868 and 1870. Of the nineteen vessels seized up to June 30, 1887, ten were American. No seizures were made in 1888. All the evidence shows that in 1886 subordinate officials on the Pacific Coast invented a policy of their own, seized and condemned, without an iota of new authority from President Cleveland, Secretary Bayard, or Secretary Manning. Indeed, those high officers seem to have been in profound ignorance of seizures contemplated or made till told by the British Government. During 1886–'87 there was, in fact, a sort of paralysis of Treasury initiative and control in Bering Sea. The Alaska Commercial Company really usurped executive power in the affair, using Government revenue cutters and Alaska courts for company purposes.

FRUITS OF DEMAGOGISM.

ONE of the acts by which the Fiftieth Congress distinguished itself was that throwing steam presses out of the Bureau of Engraving and Printing. At a general assembly of the Knights of Labor in Minneapolis in October, 1887, resolutions were adopted demanding "that the Government securities, notes, bonds, checks, and stamps shall be printed in the highest style of the art of plate-printing from hand-roller presses so as to secure the Government against loss by wear and counterfeiting." This solicitude for the protection of the Government had no other basis than opposition to a valuable labor-saving device; and the deference paid by Congress to the demand of Labor has had the precise effect that we anticipated at the time. The cost of printing the Government securities has been greatly increased; and the inability of the Bureau to meet the demands made on it, resulting from the compulsory use of clumsy and antiquated machinery, has brought about a serious arrearage of work.

The steam press is as much superior to the hand-roller press as a locomotive is to a stage-coach. In spite of the heavy royalties that the Government had to pay for

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its use, it effected an important saving, the return being $5 for every $1 expended, or an economy of $5,000 a year for each press. Before the commands of Labor were obeyed by Congress, steam presses were used on internal-revenue work and on the backs of United States notes and silver certificates; for some inscrutable reason, they were not thought to be quite fit to print the faces of these securities; this part of the work of the Bureau was reserved for the hand presses. The cost of the steam-press work was four dollars per thousand sheets; that of the hand presses, fourteen dollars per thousand. The aggregate number of sheets printed in the Bureau now reaches forty-seven millions per annum; and of these, thirty-two millions are revenue stamps. Were the revenue stamps printed on the steam presses, the saving would be $320,000. Were the backs of United States notes and silver certificates printed on these presses, the saving would be still greater. The statement that we made two years ago, that the proposed surrender to the demands of Labor would cost the people of this country more than $300,000, is no longer open to dispute.

But this is not the only price paid for this piece of demagogism. Ever since the steam presses were stopped, work in the Bureau has been more or less in a state of congestion. Capt. Meredith, the new Chief of that division of the Treasury Department, was obliged to purchase forty-seven new hand presses at a cost of $150 each; later he had to make an addition of forty-three; and now he finds that he must make another increase of one hundred and twenty-five—a total of two hundred and fifteen. This of course involves the employment of two hundred and fifteen plate printers, who work by the piece and earn an average wage of thirty dollars a week, and the same number of women assistants, who receive a little more than a dollar a day. This more than warrants our statement made two years ago that the substitution of hand presses for steam presses would necessitate the addition of one hundred and fifty plate printers.

At the time that Labor achieved its triumph over invention, every available foot of space in the bureau appeared to be occupied, and either an addition to the building or the displacement of some of the hand presses by the more efficient steam presses was required. In the room occupied by the hand presses enough steam presses could have been set up to supply all the public need. But the prospect of the displacement of a few plate-printers filled Labor with alarm, and in one of its petitions to the statesmen in the Capitol it declared: "Unless Congress interferes, the attempt to force the steam presses upon the Government will succeed, and every kind of obligation will be printed on them, rapid cheap work being substituted for good but more costly work." Demagogism listened to this frantic appeal, and as a consequence the Fifty-first Congress was compelled to make an appropriation of $80,000 for the increased room necessary for the new hand presses.

By unexampled crowding, space has been found for the ninety new presses introduced since the steam presses were thrown out; but it will not be until the addition is completed in July that enough hand presses can be put in operation to do the work of the Bureau under normal conditions. For some time past, the plate printers have been working two and a half hours overtime without arousing the sympathies of Labor; and at the beginning of last week, the Government was inconsiderate enough to add another hour. By this means, it is hoped that the arrearage of work may be reduced, and the inconvenience to which the United States Treasurer and the Internal Revenue Commissioner have been subjected will be removed. This latter official has been put to his wits' end to provide the stamps demanded by the revenue collectors throughout the country. In defiance of the law which provides that a three months' stock of stamps shall always be kept on hand, he has been obliged to issue them green and uncured. United States notes and silver certificates have also been issued in the same condition, and, as a consequence, they have been soon returned to the Treasury as unfit for use.

It is said that the situation has made the President and Secretary of the Treasury very anxious; they fear that in case a breakdown should occur in the Bureau, the supply of notes, stamps, certificates, and other securities would be cut off. Such a catastrophe might not be undesirable in the least, if it should only call public attention to the absurdity and costliness of using a machine that is as much out of date as a wooden plough or a flint hatchet, and lead to the exposure of the silly claims of Labor. Any one with a pair of good eyes and with a silver certificate printed two years ago, can determine for himself whether the work of a steam press is inferior to a hand press, and whether the one facilitates counterfeiting more than the other. The back of that certificate was printed on a steam press; if it be compared with the back of a certificate printed since the steam presses were thrown out, no difference of the least consequence will be detected. Even the experts that Labor placed on the stand two years ago, when the Senate Committee on Finance was investigating the question, could not tell the difference, although the petition already mentioned declared that "no expert with any regard for his reputation will hesitate to pronounce the work done by such presses as inferior." It was shown before the Committee that all the silver certificates that had been counterfeited previous to September, 1888, were printed on hand presses; and that hand-presses have not thwarted the counterfeiters' skill is demonstrated by the discovery, announced in Sunday's despatches from Washington, of a most dangerous counterfeit two-dollar silver certificate.

BOYCOTTING FOR BLACKMAIL.

THE unusual course which the State Board of Arbitration has taken in making a special report to the Legislature of their recent investigation of the clothing-cutters' lockout in Rochester is fully justified by the facts brought out in the inquiry. The sixty printed pages of testimony which accompany the report furnish remarkably interesting reading, giving as they do a succinct and complete narrative of one of the most brazen schemes for levying blackmail to be found in the history of boycotting as it has been developed in Mr. Powderly's noble and holy order of the Knights of Labor.

The manufacturing of clothing is one of the largest industries of many that are carried on in the city of Rochester. According to the report of the Board of Arbitration, the annual output of ready-made clothing reaches $10,000,000 in value, the annual aggregate of wages is $3,000,000, and the employees, men, women, and children, including about 5,000 families, number about 20,000, or about one-seventh of the entire population of the city. Early in the month of March this great industry came to a standstill through the combined action of twenty-one manufacturing firms in dismissing the cutters in their employ, about 350 in all. All the dismissed men were members of a local assembly of Knights of Labor, and the reason which their employers gave for their course was that they were unable to continue their business because of the insistence, on the part of the national organization of the Knights, on the right to dictate to the employers the terms upon which the local Knights should be employed. The sudden arrest of so great an industry produced the results inevitable in such cases. There was destitution and suffering in thousands of families, and the industrial and commercial life of the city received a violent shock. The State Board of Arbitration put in an appearance and made unavailing efforts to harmonize the differences between the manufacturers and employees. It then began an investigation into the causes of the trouble, sitting for three days and going into the subject with great thoroughness. We shall give as briefly as possible the main facts brought out.

The first signs of trouble appeared in the fall of 1889, when various manufacturers began to receive calls from John G. Thein, Vice-President of the Garment-Cutters' and Trimmers' National Trades Assembly 231 of the Order of Knights of Labor, and Frederick Archer, Master Workman of the same organization. One firm would be told that they were employing one more apprentice than the rules of the order permitted; another would be told that they were giving an apprentice a kind of work which the rules of the order forbade; another would be told that they were paying men for extra work which the rules of the order forbade, or were inducing them to work on half-holidays, which was also forbidden. In each case, when Thein or Archer was informed that the firm insisted upon managing their affairs in their own way, the insolent rejoinder was that they (the firm) would soon discover that they would not be allowed to do that, and that they would be very glad to change their minds before very long.

Soon after these visits, there came to the resisting firm a letter from James Hughes,

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at first stationed in Omaha, and subsequently in Chicago. Hughes wrote all his communications on paper with the pompous heading, "Office of National Trade Assembly 231, Garment-Cutters and Trimmers of North America, Order of Knights of Labor," and began invariably with the formula: "Gentlemen: In my official capacity as Chairman of the Garment-Cutters and Trimmers of North America, I am called upon by our organization, located at your city, to try and straighten out trouble with our organization and your firm." He then went on to say that the Executive Board of the local assembly had "waited on" the firm and had stated its demands, which had not been granted, and that he had been called in to assist in the matter. From this point on Hughes generally wrote like a bully and a blackguard who was too dull to comprehend the illegal character of his threats and requirements. We append a specimen of his usual letter at this stage of the controversy:

"I wrote your firm in March about this trouble, and you *apparently* met our organization's wishes for a few weeks, but it was only temporarily, as you have since my letter treated Executive Board of Local Assembly 1727, K. of L., very ungentlemanly and the wishes of our organization with utter contempt. Now we come to the conclusion it is a waste of time to write a firm or express our wishes, who have treated us as you have my letter and the wishes of our organization. So we have proceeded to protect ourselves by bringing the wishes of our organization in a more forcible way to your office than by letter or sending our Local Executive Board. We have notified all our friends at [here follow the names of forty-two cities in various parts of the country] and very many other important points left unnamed, and we know only too well your firm will be willing to meet the just wishes of our organization before three months. We have spent the money of our organization for results and will get them."

In nearly every instance in which this letter was received the threatened firm was weak enough to yield, through fear of the boycott held over its goods in case of refusal. In frequent cases the names of customers in various cities were put into the threat in order to show what power the national organization possessed. It appeared in the testimony that these names had been procured by compelling members of the local assembly of Knights, who were clerks of the firms, to get possession of them in one way or another. Of course, the immediate effect of yielding was to make matters worse than ever. In fact, Hughes did not appear in full glory until he had won his first concession. He immediately put in a bill of expenses for the trouble caused to his organization by the first refusal, and also for the cost he should be put to to stop the boycott which had been got under way. In this manner he made one firm pay $1,600, another firm $1,087, another $1,000, and so on. Sometimes there was a long correspondence with the great Hughes over his bills, resulting in reductions, though only after violent protestation on his part.

Of course there was only one result of a controversy with a man of this character. Every demand that was granted was followed by others more insolent, until all possibility of conducting their business at all was removed from the manufacturers, and they decided to stop. It should be borne in mind that the employees themselves had never complained of their treatment by their employers; they did not object to the apprentices, and they were eager to do the extra work offered them. The employers had abundant work on hand, more orders, indeed, than they could fill, and they were willing to pay union wages for all the extra work the men could do. Furthermore, none of the Knights who made the trouble were ever in the manufacturers' employ. Only one of them, Thein, was even a resident of Rochester. Hughes lived in Chicago, Westbrook in New York, Wright in Philadelphia. There is no evidence to show even that any of them were really members of the craft which they were "managing" into discontent and idleness. It is no wonder that when the investigation was concluded, Hughes, Westbrook, Wright, and Thein were indicted for conspiracy and extortion, placed under arrest, and taken to Rochester for trial. Neither is it surprising that the Board of Arbitration, in presenting the evidence to the Legislature, should say that the "Boycott, as its workings are developed in this case, does not conduce to harmony between the parties, and is not calculated to improve their present or any other system of production. On the contrary, it would seem that, sooner or later, the consequence must be disruption of relations and destruction of industries. Like causes produce like effects, and the spectacle presented in Rochester to-day may be witnessed in the other industrial centres of the State to-morrow."

But Hughes is still unsubdued. He issued on Friday a proclamation to all Knights in the land, calling upon them to boycott the manufacturers everywhere by warning local retail clothing-dealers not to handle their goods. The reason for this step is that the manufacturers are about to resume business in their own way, and are even thinking of doing so with new men, refusing to reemploy some of the old ones whose extreme Knightly conduct aggravated their past difficulties. In his proclamation Hughes speaks of himself and indicted associates as being temporarily in the "hands of the paid emissary of this unjust combine, the Rochester District Attorney." His proclamation is very cheap bravado, amounting to the familiar Powderly performance of declaring, at the moment when the failure of a strike is assured, that the "strike is still on."

TWO IMPORTANT ART EXHIBITIONS.

LONDON, March 16, 1891.

MR. HAMERTON, in one of his essays, speaks of the influence of fashion on the arts of drawing and book-illustration. But I do not think that he has pointed out in this connection the curious fact that while illustration never has been quite as popular as it is nowadays, there is nothing to which the public is apparently so indifferent as the original work, which they know and prize in the reproduction. Black-and-white exhibitions languish; the black-and-white room at the Royal Academy is always all but deserted. The drawing of a master has but small chance by the side of the real oil-painting of the veriest tyro. But, fortunately for the few who do care and know, two very important shows of drawings, some mere notes and memoranda for the artist's own use, others made for reproduction and publication, have just been opened in London. These are, the exhibition of drawings illustrative of European art acquired within the last five or six years by the British Museum authorities, and now hung in the new White building, and the collection of Charles Keene's work brought together in the Fine Art Society's galleries. While the latter will remain open but for a few weeks, the former will in all probability continue for a couple of years, and Americans coming to London during that time should on no account miss it.

It is to be regretted that the rare series of Japanese and Chinese work has had to be put away to make room for the examples of European art at the British Museum. But still these occasional changes in the permanent exhibition, the only means by which many of the Museum treasures could be shown to the public, have their value. The present selection is of such unusual interest that it certainly should not have been allowed to remain carefully hidden out of sight, though it is scarcely as representative as it aims at being. Divided into three sections—Early and Renaissance Schools, Seventeenth and Eighteenth Century Schools, and Modern Schools—it is really in the third of these divisions, by far the most important for the draughtsman of to-day, devoted all but wholly to British drawings, which, however, include but few examples of the period when English draughtsmanship was at its greatest. Delightful and valuable as are the drawings of the old Italian masters, the delicate pen-work of Mantegna, the vigorous studies of Signorelli and Michael Angelo, the refined designs of Gozzoli and Peruzzi, these, of course, are but the merest notes and sketches for pictures, of no small interest in themselves, but without technical value for the modern draughtsman who works for reproduction; and besides, one sees the same studies in all the large Continental galleries, in many to far better advantage. Indeed, in this first section there is nothing of very marked distinction—that is, nothing that calls for special comment—except a pen drawing by Albert Dürer. This deserves careful examination, for it throws some light on a much disputed point in regard to his work. It is evidently a drawing prepared for the woodcutter; looked at closely, you can see that it has been traced, probably on to the block; the word "Apolo" on it is written backward, in order, without doubt, that it may be properly reversed in the printing; but the most noteworthy feature is the extreme delicacy and refinement of the pen line—far more like Dürer's etched line than the line in his woodcuts. It is instructive to contrast this original design with some of the printed blocks from his work down stairs in the King's library. A draughtsman with such a style and such methods would (despite William Morris and Walter Crane and the latter-day worshippers of primitive engraving) have greatly preferred to be reproduced by process, which would have retained much of his delicacy, than by wood-engraving, which cut it almost all away. That he was not his own woodcutter, as the faithful would have us believe, this drawing proves most unquestionably.

Noteworthy, too, in the same section, is the work of Cerceau, the French architectural draughtsman, which shows that in his time architectural drawings were set up exactly as they are nowadays, while it is seldom that one sees such beautiful studies of decorative detail.

In the seventeenth and eighteenth-century schools Rembrandt stands supreme. There

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are here fine pencil studies for portraits by Rubens; delightful impressions of landscape by Vandyke; charming little heads and graceful figures by Watteau and Boucher; the marvellously elaborate drawings made by Dunker and Freudenberger for the steel engravings illustrating Margaret of Navarre's 'Heptameron'; pencil sketches by Lely which have far more character and power than his finished portraits in oils; good strong notes by Reynolds and Gainsborough; two fairly typical Blakes. But there is nothing equal in artistic importance to a little drawing in soft pencil of an elephant by Rembrandt. This is really the gem of the whole collection. It is done with the utmost simplicity, there is hardly any work in it at all, and yet it is all there; you can feel the quality of the elephant's tough hide and see its heavy folds. The drawing is a masterpiece. Wonderful, too, are three others in sepia—two small landscapes with the distance as exquisitely suggested as in his etchings of similar subjects, and a rich Good Samaritan at the door of the inn.

It is, as I have said, in the third section, covering our century, a period which there are not so many opportunities to study, that the exhibition is least satisfactory. The British Museum authorities have been complimented because they have realized that there are draughtsmen outside of Great Britain. But this realization has not carried them very far. A couple of charcoal studies by Millet, several examples of Ingres and pencil sketches of architecture by Méryon, very nice but not very marvellous in themselves, though interesting as coming from him, and two Maori heads by the same artist, which are Méryon rather than Maorian, complete the foreign selection. There is nothing of Menzel, nothing of Meissonier, nothing of Fortuny. The great masters who made the drawing of to-day what it is, might as well never have worked, for all the representation they find here. I understand that the appropriation made to the Print Department is not large, and Mr. Colvin, the keeper, is somewhat limited by his purse. But a little more discrimination in the selection of work would have gone far towards counterbalancing this difficulty. Instead of endless and indifferent examples of greatly overrated Englishmen, instead of wearisome series of hopelessly dull and commonplace English water-colors, one or two typical drawings by the true modern masters of draughtsmanship might profitably have been substituted.

Conspicuous among the good things that one would most certainly retain, are beautiful sketches by Constable, some in color, others in black-and-white; big, expressive architectural studies in pencil by Prout—these, with the sketches of William Leighton Leitch, showing how much more carefully men did this sort of work before the introduction of photography; and Alfred Stevens's designs. But if the leading foreign draughtsmen are unrepresented, so, too, are the most notable English artists in black-and-white. There are plenty of Hablot Brownes, Cruikshanks, and Caldecotts, men of greater popularity with the public than with their fellow-artists. But of Keene, Sandys, Pinwell, the little group who made the *Graphic* and English illustration of some thirty years ago, there are absolutely no examples, and yet it is to them the modern British school of drawing owes whatever prominence it may have. Their absence is in a measure due to the fact that the work of living artists is not included in the collection; and of these men few are dead, though, perhaps because they are living in neglect and poverty, like Sandys, or have long since ceased to do good work, like Millais, they are not known to the present generation as draughtsmen. But there is no excuse now for not giving the drawings of Charles Keene the space which they so largely deserve.

It is a happy chance which at this juncture has led the Fine Arts Society to open the show of Keene's work. In their gallery the study begun at the Museum can with profit be continued. Keene is unquestionably the greatest English draughtsman who ever lived, though it was only by a very small saving remnant that his greatness was appreciated. A man of over sixty when he died, the Royal Academy had ever been closed against him; he had never enjoyed the notoriety of other *Punch* men; he was never seen in the galleries, except of late years in one or two shows of the New English Art Club, of which he was an honorary member. It was to the Continent he had to turn for whatever honors his work brought him. His death may be said to have attracted public attention to him for the first time, and fortunately the exhibition of his drawings is being held before he is again forgotten. The greater number of these drawings are, of course, his contributions to *Punch*, well known in a way, and yet not known at all, so much have they lost in the woodcutting. In the gallery there is a portfolio containing some of his earliest pen-and-ink work which it is interesting to compare with his later productions, for he seems in the beginning to have drawn with a delicacy and refinement of line only equalled by Whistler in his etchings. There are delightful studies of figures, of interiors, of landscape, of boats, which no etching could surpass, and which show what we might have had from him had he worked for process. Working for woodcutting, he soon realized that one thing it could not do was to render the extreme refinement of his line, and he somewhat altered his methods, though he never subordinated himself to his woodcutter. Later on, as if he saw how hopeless it was to expect exact reproduction, he used greater freedom again, drawing in any colored ink and on any kind of paper; some of the drawings are made on the backs of advertisements. The cuts in *Punch* but faintly reflect the originals; indeed, often there is not even an attempt to follow his lines.

All his drawings, however made, show the same careful study, the same originality in conception and execution, the same style—in a word, the same indefinable artistic quality which always distinguishes the work of the master. No one knew better than he how to suggest all the character of the landscape in the fewest possible lines; no one understood more thoroughly what are the essential features of a London street or a shop interior. His figures are masterpieces of modelling, and even the poorest reproductions cannot altogether destroy the simply expressed but strong individuality of his Robert, his cabmen, his delightful drunken gentleman, his fat lady, his street urchin. It has been made a reproach to him that he never sought to render beautiful or merely pretty types. As well might Rembrandt or Velasquez be taken to task for painting many of the portraits which are the triumph of their, and indeed of all, art. Charles Keene drew the life he saw and knew best; and therein lies the secret of his greatness. It is to his lasting credit that in these days, when art is upon the town, as Whittier puts it, he never sacrificed artistic achievement to popular taste for the sake of the all-powerful initials R. A. after his name, or of a palace in Kensington or St. John's Wood.

The Keene exhibition has made a great stir among artists, who have been the chief buyers of his drawings; but I doubt if it prove popular with the outside public. As for the new show at the British Museum, it is pitiful to see the mere handful of people who attend it in the evenings, despite the electric light, which gives artists and artisans, busy during the day, a chance to enjoy it after dark. But this is only additional proof of the prevailing indifference to the art of drawing, save in its reproductive forms. Perhaps if people were not so ignorant of the methods of reproduction, this indifference might not be so great. But it is astonishing to find how little the average mortal knows, and how much less he cares to understand, the processes which give him, in his periodicals and books, the artist's work. A curious instance of this, just now brought notoriously before the public, is to be had in Prof. Herkomer's "Idyl," very recently published. "Illustrated by Sixteen Etched Plates," by the Professor, is announced in the circulars and by the publishers, and yet it has been seriously questioned in the *National Observer* (and other papers are following its lead) whether these illustrations are etchings or photogravures. To any one who examines them carefully, there cannot be much doubt. Now, if people were more intelligently interested in the illustrated books which they buy, a deception—to call it by a polite name—of this kind would not be possible. Unfortunately, however, the poor ignorant public is not here entirely to blame. Part of the responsibility rests with Mr. Hamerton, who for the last few years has been telling us but too often that a photogravure is an etching. Publishers have not been slow to take the hint. In the Temple Library, photogravures have been advertised and sold and criticised as etchings with the greatest success. But when it comes to the least doubt being thrown upon the artistic and commercial veracity of a man of Mr. Herkomer's position, it is time indeed to protest. If such exhibitions as the two I have described would but draw attention to original work, one might hope that in the course of time people would begin to interest themselves in the methods by which this work is given to them in its printed result. N. N.

TALLEYRAND'S MEMOIRS.*—II.

PARIS, March 9, 1891.

TALLEYRAND is not mistaken when he attaches great importance to a decision taken by Marshal de Ségur. At a moment when the doctrine of equality was making daily progress, the Marshal decided that commissions in the army should be reserved exclusively for noblemen. Fabert, Chevert, Catinat having been plebeians, the petty officers of the army were outraged by this measure; they furnished afterwards the generals of the Revolution and the marshals of the Empire. The spirit of caste was the true agent of destruction of the old régime, and a philosophic observer would trace its influence throughout the history of France, even to the present period. Nobility no longer confers any material privileges, but it creates what the philosophers call an *état d'âme* absolutely hostile to the democratic ideal. For a hundred years there have been, so to speak, two nations in the nation, and the final reconciliation has not yet taken place.

The Comte d'Artois gave the signal for the emigration. Talleyrand says of him, "I loved him. I needed all the force of my reason not to follow him." He refused, however, to join the Count in Turin. He did not blame the *émigrés*, he blamed the emigration. Talleyrand took a not unimportant part in the dis-

* 'Memoirs of the Prince de Talleyrand.' Vols. I. and II. G. P. Putnam's Sons.

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cussions of the famous Constituent Assembly. When the Assembly made a constitution for the clergy without any previous understanding with the Papacy, almost all the bishops refused to take the oath of adherence to what was called the "civil constitution of the clergy." The new bishops were anxious to have the episcopal consecration; Talleyrand consented to consecrate one of them, who afterwards consecrated the others. He himself resigned the bishopric of Autun and abandoned the Church for ever.

I follow in the memoirs of Talleyrand the thread of the events in which he was concerned, leaving aside many considerations or questions which have now lost their interest. This thread of events is often interrupted. Talleyrand did not make a diary; he depicted only certain periods of his existence. He says hardly anything about the mission intrusted to him in 1792. He went to England with the Duc de Biron on the 12th of January, and returned to Paris on the 9th of March. After the famous 10th of August, 1792, he felt that he was no longer safe in France, notwithstanding the services he had rendered to the Revolution. He asked to be sent on a mission to England, on the futile pretext of studying the weights and measures (a question which had occupied him in the Constituent Assembly); he really wished to leave France with a regular passport, and he succeeded. He remained in England during the whole of the "effroyable" year 1793 and a part of 1794. He was very kindly received by the Marquis of Lansdowne, whom he had known in Paris. He did not wish to remain long in England, and his stay was shortened by an order of expulsion. He went on board the first ship that was leaving for the United States. A tempest obliged his ship to take refuge in Falmouth, and Talleyrand found himself for a day in the same inn with Gen. Arnold. "I am perhaps the only American," said Arnold to him, "who can give you no letters for his own country." Arnold withheld his name from Talleyrand.

Talleyrand landed in Philadelphia, and made a journey with M. de Beaumetz, a French émigré, and a Dutchman named Heydecoper. He was not given to the descriptive style, like the modern traveller; his observations had reference to manners. In Mrs. Robert Morris's drawing-room he admired an elegant *guéridon* of Sèvres porcelain; on this table was the hat of the master of the house—"a hat which a European peasant would not have liked to put on his head." In a log-house in Ohio he saw a piano adorned with the most beautiful bronzes. It is clear that he admired the simplicity of America more than its luxury. I have it from a person who had known him that, when he spoke of America, he always said, "Its *luxe* is horrible." Talleyrand did not see Gen. Washington, though he had a letter of introduction to him written by Lord Lansdowne; he made the acquaintance of Gen. Hamilton, of whom he says that, "by his mind and his character he seemed to him to be, even in the lifetime of Pitt and Fox, on a level with the most distinguished statesmen of Europe."

After thirty months spent in America (without any other desire than not to be in France or in England), he received a decree of the Convention which authorized him to return to France. He embarked on board a ship which was going to Hamburg. His prudence led him not to return directly to France. When he was still at the mouth of the Elbe, he received a message from Madame de Flahaut, who was at Hamburg, who urged him not to land, but to return immediately to France. They had been very intimate in old times, and she feared that his return might be an obstacle to her intended marriage with M. de Souza, the Minister of Portugal. Talleyrand did not mind this ridiculous message, and he remained a month at Hamburg, where he found Madame de Genlis such as he had seen her in the time of her glory. Madame de Genlis gives an account of her intercourse with Talleyrand at Hamburg in her interesting and too much neglected memoirs. They recalled to each other the delightful evenings they had spent in France with Mademoiselle (the sister of Louis Philippe) and her own niece Pamela. Talleyrand came to her little *soupers* in Hamburg, and ironically spoke of their "estimable frugality." "One night," says she, "I gave a great supper, perfectly well served, to which all our friends were invited. Talleyrand, seeing this magnificent repast, whispered in my ear: 'I promise you I will not appear astonished.' It would be impossible to be more amiable than he was at that repast."

Talleyrand went from Hamburg to Amsterdam, thence to Brussels, and arrived in Paris only in September, 1796. Mme. de Staël became his Providence in the new society which had emerged from the Revolution. She pressed him to make the acquaintance of Barras, and, after some reluctance, he accepted an invitation of Barras to Suresnes. While he was waiting for Barras, a young man of whom Barras was very fond drowned himself in the Seine, and Talleyrand's first interview was much disturbed by this unfortunate incident. "From that moment I never had any complaint to make of Barras. He was very passionate, all animation and impulse; I had known him for scarcely two hours, yet I might have thought I was, so to speak, the person he loved best in the world."

Some time afterwards, the Directory made a change in their Cabinet, and Barras insisted upon the nomination of his new friend as Minister of Foreign Affairs. A gendarme brought the offer to him; Madame de Staël urged him to accept, and he did so. "I know," he says, "that some persons, not then, but since the Restoration, have discovered that it was wrong to take office in a time of crisis and revolution, when it is impossible to do any absolute good. It always seemed to me that this view was very superficial. In the affairs of this world, you must never stop at the present moment. *What is* is almost always of little consequence, when one does not remember that *what is* will produce what *will be;* and, in truth, in order to arrive at an end, must you not start? . . . People are not always led by personal calculation when they accept office, and I might say that it is a great sacrifice to consent to become the responsible editor of the work of other people. Selfishness and fear have less abnegation." I give these reasonings, or sophisms, for what they are worth; they are certainly very characteristic of the man who served so many governments and always succeeded in conferring more favors than he himself received.

At the first sitting of the Directory at which Talleyrand appeared, a quarrel arose between Carnot and Barras. "The latter accused his colleague of having suppressed a letter which ought to have been placed under the eyes of the Directory. They were both standing. Carnot lifted his hand, and said: 'I give you my word of honor that it is not true.' 'Don't lift your hand,' answered Barras; 'blood would drip from it.' Such were the men who governed France, and with them I had to try to make France reënter European society. I threw myself into this great enterprise." The victories of the Directory, and especially those of Gen. Bonaparte, made this task somewhat easy. Talleyrand, on assuming office, wrote immediately to Bonaparte, and a correspondence between them was established. Talleyrand saw in the young general who signed the treaty of Campo Formio (October 17, 1797) the man of genius, the man of the future.

As soon as Bonaparte returned from Italy, he sent an aide-de-camp to Talleyrand announcing a visit from himself. The first conversation was extremely friendly and confidential. Bonaparte said, among many other things: "You are the nephew of the Archbishop of Reims, who is with Louis XVIII." If he dreamed a moment of playing the part of Monk, the dream was not of long duration. It is clear that Talleyrand did not, after the execution of Louis XVI., believe in the possibility of the Restoration; he thought that a transition was necessary—a temporary monarch, and perhaps a new dynasty. What he called the *polygarchy* of the Directory could not last, and did not deserve to last. The Consulate was, in reality, the preface to the Empire. Talleyrand understood at once that France wished to preserve the fruits of the Revolution, but to be rid of the revolutionists. These had been the instruments of destiny; Bonaparte was the strong man desired by the nation, who owed everything to the Revolution, and who could organize the new society which had sprung out of it. He was the man who could force Europe to recognize this new order of things, and defend it against everybody. Napoleon understood all this even better than Talleyrand; he did more than understand it, he was unconscious—he was like a living force of nature; his passions were as lucid as Talleyrand's intelligence. He felt that he was the natural master of the new France, and that in order to remain its master, he must be the master of Europe. Talleyrand represented the traditions of old France, and he placed his immense knowledge and extraordinary ability at the disposition of the man who was ready to remodel Europe as France had been remodelled.

Correspondence.

HOW OUR PENSION LAW WORKS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: A German who had served in our army during the Civil War, but is now living in perfect health at Poessneck in the Duchy of Sachsen-Meiningen, was recently informed by the United States Consul at Sonneberg that he was entitled to a pension, not only from the present date, but also for the twenty-seven years that have elapsed since he left the service. This back pension amounts to more than $6,000. After his death the pension will be continued to his widow during her lifetime.

Another German enlisted in the United States cavalry from 1852 to 1855, when he returned to his native land and was appointed to a petty office under the Bavarian Government at Lindau. About a year ago he was surprised to receive a letter from a pension lawyer in Cleveland, Ohio, asking him whether he had never taken cold while on duty on our Western frontier, and whether this cold might not have induced some affection of the lungs, liver, or heart; adding that in such case he would be entitled to a pension. The man, having his memory thus jogged, recalled several instances of this sort, and presumed the cold might have injured the internal organs mentioned. He accordingly filled out the papers which the lawyer had sent him, and now

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draws his pension. He has never been an American citizen and never fought in a single battle while in the United States service. He is a Bavarian subject, and was pensioned not long ago by the Bavarian Government on account of his age. But, as he remarked to the writer, his pension for thirty years' service under the Bavarian Government is a mere bagatelle compared with that which he receives from Washington for three years' bloodless service in the United States cavalry. He frankly admitted that he never expected a pension and was perfectly satisfied with the pay he received as a soldier; but why should he refuse the money thus thrust upon him? The above is by no means an isolated or exceptional case; and the money to pay for such "fooling" comes out of the pocket of the American citizen. E.

MR. PHELPS ON DIPLOMACY.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In his recent article in *Harper's Magazine*, Mr. Phelps says: "A nation divided against itself can never achieve a diplomatic success." This can hardly be accepted as an axiom in diplomacy, as some of the most important treaties have been made by nations torn almost asunder by internal dissensions. The Hartford Convention of 1814 had but very recently closed its labors when the United States Commissioners secured all that their country demanded by the treaty with England ending the war of 1812—an issue due solely to the wisdom, patience, and patriotism of Gallatin and his associates, when the country was well-nigh exhausted by an unequal contest with a great Power and irreconcilable disputes at home. J. S. N.

Philadelphia, March 26, 1891.

A QUESTION OF CATALOGUING.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I recognize with pleasure your hearty appreciation of the excellent code of rules for cataloguing just issued by Mr. Linderfelt of Milwaukee; and, where criticisms are so few, it may seem ungracious to object to any of them. But I feel called upon to protest against your dictum that "Pratt (Enoch) Free Library" is the proper form for the entry of that title. Mr. Linderfelt says it should be entered in its "usual" form (meaning, of course, what the word "usual" naturally means, and not what it means in cataloguing usage), and he is undoubtedly right. I think it will be found that most American catalogues give such forms as Enoch Pratt Library, Johns Hopkins University, Leland Stanford University, without any transposition. See, for examples, Johns Hopkins, in the Astor Library Supplement, in the American Catalogue, 1876–1884, and in the Catalogue of the Library of the Surgeon-General's Office at Washington.

I am aware that Cutter's Rules (2d ed.) gives "Pratt (Enoch) Free Library" as an example, but I am inclined to think it is in the nature of an oversight, as this particular question is not discussed. Cutter's note (H. p. 32) on the names of firms is not at all conclusive on this point. W. I. F.

Amherst College Library,
Amherst, Mass., March 28, 1891.

THE EXCAVATION OF DELPHI.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I have not seen that any of your correspondents at Athens have called attention to the fact that, after all the negotiation and contribution of funds for the work which our School at Athens was to do at Delphi, the French School has got the concession even after ours had secured the funds necessary, as was supposed. This is the conclusion to which I have always looked as inevitable. I have urged the responsible authorities on our side not to enter into a competition which could only end to our disadvantage and which must produce unpleasant feeling; and I put forward the event which has ended the controvesy, viz., that the Greek Government would give the concession to France whenever she accepted the treaty negotiated in 1887, to which both parties were bound. I asserted that the Greeks were only using our propositions to get better terms from France, and that they never had any real intention of giving the concession to the American School. I stated, what now is seen to be the fact, that the French had never withdrawn their claims and did not mean to withdraw them, and on these grounds I urged abstention from a competition which exaggerated the pretensions of the Greeks, involved discourtesy to the French and alienation between the two schools, and which was certain to be decided against us. For this I have been attacked as unpatriotic, put in Coventry by the friends of our School, and made to pay such penalties as the outraged dignity of our archæologists could inflict. We have succeeded in making the French pay more than double what the Greek Government demanded at first, and when we come to the point with the money demanded in our hands, we have the humiliation of learning that we have only been made the tools of a crafty combination for the Greek advantage. There was never any intention of giving the concession to the American School. This I had the proof of in 1889, but the persons responsible would not believe me, and now we pay the penalty.

I am obliged to do justice to myself, and to this end I ask the publication of the above.

Yours truly, W. J. Stillman.

DR. WALDSTEIN ON THE GRAVE OF ARISTOTLE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Contrary to my wishes, the news has already leaked into the papers here that I have discovered the grave of Aristotle. As I am very anxious that no sensational report be spread, not warranted by conscientious scientific investigation, I feel bound to make public at this juncture the grounds upon which this premature conclusion has been arrived at.

During the excavations which have been carried on by the American School of Classical Studies under my direction on the site of the ancient Eretria, I was making tentative excavations in the neighborhood of the city, in order to discover the temple of the Amyrinthian Artemis. I came upon beautifully worked marble foundations, which, however, proved to be the enclosures of a family grave, such as exist in considerable number about Eretria. But these walls were of such workmanship and magnificence that I concluded they must be the finest graves in the neighborhood. After much digging, and opening of two graves, we came upon one within this precinct which contained a number of articles (twenty-three), among them six diadems of pure gold and one laurel wreath of pure gold about the head; furthermore, a most interesting specimen of a writing-pen in silver, and two styluses of the same material. Also a statuette of a philosopher, with hands folded, in terracotta.

It seemed evident to me at the time that the person here buried was a man of literary pursuits, and furthermore a man of considerable fame and note. When, in the grave adjoining, containing the remains of a female member of the family, an inscription was found, [B]IOTH [A]PISTOTELAOY (Biote Aristotelou), the tempting question flitted through the mind, whether the gold-wreathed philosopher buried with such distinction was not the famous Stagirite? This grew still more tempting when one bore in mind that Aristotle died at Kalchis, and that Kalchis is the adjoining city to Eretria. Finally, Christodoros describes a statue of Aristotle which he saw in a gymnasium at Constantinople as "standing with hands folded together," which corresponds to the unique terracotta found in the grave. According to Prof. Richardson, the inscription goes back to the third century B. C.

This is an outline of the facts connected with the discovery. But I should like to point to the following points which militate against the identification: first, that Kalchis is not Eretria, though it adjoins it, though graves run almost continuously from Kalchis as far as Bathia, two hours beyond Eretria, and though one must not assume that these were the same distinct and inimical communities after the Macedonian period which they were in the previous centuries. One must further remember that there were several Aristotles in antiquity, and that the daughter of Aristotle by his wife Pythias is mentioned in his will, and that her name was Pythias, not Biote; though he might have had a daughter by Herpyllis. Finally, research has not yet considered and settled the question whether the terracotta figures in the graves had any such *direct* reference to the deceased as the statuette of the philosopher in the grave in question might tempt us to believe existed in this case; though we can, even now, maintain that a general relation subsisted, such as that of ephebi in graves of youths, children in children's graves, and women with articles of toilet in those of women.

These are, on the whole, the facts which I can at present make public. Perhaps more light may come to us.

Charles Waldstein.

American School of Classical Studies,
Athens, March 12, 1891.

SOME GREEK PROOF-READING.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: "What the author hath joined together let not the scribe put asunder" is a rule that is often violated, and many easy corrections may be made by restoring the original unity. But scholars are often very slow to avail themselves of the opportunity. One such correction, made long ago, has recently been confirmed by the discovery of the 'Ἀθηναίων πολιτεία.'

In the *American Journal of Philology*, i, 458 (1880), I proposed to read Solon fr. 36, 21 (Bergk)—

οὔτ' ἂν κατέσχε δῆμον οὔτ' ἐπαύσατο
πρὶν ἀναταράξας πῖαρ ἐξεῖλεν γάλα

instead of πρὶν ἂν ταράξας πῖαρ ἐξέλῃ γάλα. "Of course," I added, "we might also have ἐξελεῖν as in Eur. *Alc.* 362," where πρὶν καταστῆσαι occurs after an unreal conditional.

In ignorance of my emendation, Mr. Adam, in his edition of the *Crito*, p. 44 D (1888), improved on it by reading ἀνταράξας, and added, "possibly ἐξεῖλεν." In a letter to the *Academy* published March 14, Mr. Adam was swift to claim the credit of his anticipation.

The first edition of the 'Ἀθηναίων πολιτεία' had ἂν ταράξας . . . ἐξελεῖν. The second, among

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the *corrigenda*, ἀνταράξας. . . . ἐξεῖλεν. "Auf ἀνταράξας," says Blass in the *Lit. Centralblatt*, Feb. 28, 1891, commenting on the first edition, "ist kein Mensch gekommen" (he might have added "ausser Adam"). "Da aber Negation vorausgeht, muss es ἐξεῖλεν heissen, was sich in Solon's Schreibung (ΕΞΕΛΑΕΝ) von ἐξελεῖν gar nicht unterschied." But I have already shown that ἐξελεῖν might stand perfectly well.

An odd persistence of a bad reading of the divorce pattern is to be found in Goodwin's 'Moods and Tenses,' in which for thirty years ἄν with the present ind. (Plat. *Legg.* iv, 712 E) has been explained by the anacoluthic shift. So in the revised edition § 195. In my copy of the edition of 1867 I changed, as a matter of course, ἂν ἐρωτηθείς into ἀνερωτηθείς, and this is the reading of Schanz's edition of the 'Laws' (1879).

In Pind. N 7, 68, μαθὼν δέ τις ἂν ἐρεῖ, ἂν ἐρεῖ has been corrected by Mr. Bury, in his recent edition, with a flourish of trumpets, into μαθὼν δέ τις ἀνερεῖ. The emendation is no great achievement; it is just what every proof-reader does every day without making any claim to superhuman insight; but, such as it is, it may be found in the *American Journal of Philology*, iii, 452, and in my Pindar, Introd. Essay, civ, so that it does not seem to me much more original than some of Mr. Bury's analyses of the Pindaric odes. And doubtless it has been suggested before my day. Comp. Aeschin. 3, 155.

Moral for young scholars. Be sure of your grammar. Be sure of your text. Don't brag.

B. L. GILDERSLEEVE.

MARCH 26, 1891.

Notes.

HOUGHTON, MIFFLIN & Co. will shortly publish a Life of Charles G. Finney, formerly President of Oberlin College, prepared for the series, "American Religious Leaders," by Prof. Geo. F. Wright of the same institution; 'Excursions in Art and Letters,' by W. W. Story; and John Fiske's *Atlantic* papers on the American Revolution.

'Jerry,' an anonymous novel that has been running in *Scribner's Magazine*, will be brought out at once as a book by Henry Holt & Co.

D. Appleton & Co. will shortly publish 'The Iron Game,' a story of the war, by Henry F. Keenan.

Thomas Whittaker announces a popular series of handy volumes containing biographies of "Men with a Mission" in English and American history. Kingsley, Stanley, Latimer, Lincoln, Howard, and Lord Lawrence are examples of the range of the series.

D. C. Heath & Co. will shortly issue a handbook of technical German called a 'German Science Reader,' by Prof. Gore of Columbian University. A vocabulary will much enhance its value.

Macmillan & Co. have in press a Life of Archbishop Tait, by Dean Davidson and Canon Benham; and a Life of Jane Welsh Carlyle, by Mrs. Alexander Ireland.

A volume of Sir Robert Peel's early letters, covering the period of his Irish Secretaryship and his first term as Home Secretary, edited by Mr. C. S. Parker, M.P., is about to be published by John Murray.

J. W. Bouton, No. 8 West Twenty-eighth Street, invites subscriptions to Portfolios I. and II. of Dr. Friedrich Lippmann's 'Engravings and Woodcuts by Old Masters,' reproduced in facsimile with rare fidelity by the Imperial Press at Berlin. There may be six or seven portfolios in all.

The manuscript of the second volume of Julius Froebel's 'Ein Lebenslauf,' the first volume of which was lately noticed in these columns, is already in the hands of the publisher (Stuttgart: Cotta), but will not appear until after the author's decease. It is a valuable contribution to the political history of Germany during the past thirty years by one who took an active part in it, and was intimately associated with the persons most prominent in directing the course of events. As Froebel, although eighty-six years of age, is still hale and hearty, it is highly probable that some time will elapse before the publication of the complete work.

Harper & Brothers make two pretty volumes, in the new series of their Franklin Square Library, of Mr. Howells's 'Hazard of New Fortunes' and 'Annie Kilburn.' From the same publishers we have a new local guide-book, 'New York and its Environs,' by Gustav Kobbé. It is orderly in its arrangement and discriminating in its selection, and compresses a great deal of information into less than 300 pages. There are three maps, of the city proper, of the environs, and of Central Park, and a few process illustrations. The foreign tourist has been kept specially in mind, and Mr. Kobbé takes him from the Battery northward to the Park. The new guide does not supersede 'Appletons' Dictionary of New York,' but the stranger will do well to own both these inexpensive volumes. Mr. Kobbé invites corrections, and we will suggest some minor ones: the placing of a semi-colon after "Manhattan," in the eighth line of p. 11, will remove the implication that this island, like the three following, is "occupied by the U. S. Government." In the last line of p. 179 Mr. Stanford White's name should be brought into conformity with the proper spelling of it on p. 177. And in the preface, p. 10, we should read "itinerary" for "itineracy."

Mr. M. M. Ballou's publishers, Houghton, Mifflin & Co., have made a tourists' guide-book of his 'New Eldorado: A Summer Journey to Alaska,' which first appeared and was favorably reviewed by us in 1889. Certain errors we then pointed out have been allowed to stand, and we believe there is no change in the work except the insertion of maps.

We have received from Charles E. Merrill & Co., 52 Lafayette Place, the first two volumes of the first authorized American edition of Ruskin's works. It is called the Brantwood edition, and its authenticity is vouched for by the introductions furnished by Prof. C. E. Norton. This friendly service has been made difficult by Mr. Ruskin's almost contemptuous self-criticism and recantation in his latter-day notes to the 'Seven Lamps of Architecture,' one of the volumes before us; the other being the lectures on art to which the collective title of 'The Two Paths' was given. The volumes are duodecimo in form, with good print and unostentatious binding. The 'Lamps' has fourteen plates.

The April number of the *Pennsylvania Magazine of History and Biography* is almost wholly occupied with the period of the Revolution. Dr. Stillé's new Life of John Dickinson is briefly noticed by Mr. Henry Flanders. Mr. William S. Baker, besides continuing his very valuable "Itinerary of Gen. Washington from June 15, 1775, to December 23, 1783," edits a MS. of Elias Boudinot touching the exchange of Maj.-Gen. Charles Lee. Of this eccentric character a curious caricature by Kosciusko is given in facsimile. Some letters of Franklin, bearing his stamp, are printed for the first time. Mr. S. W. Pennypacker treats at some length of the University of Pennsylvania in its relations to the State. We mention finally a summary of the winter seasons in Pennsylvania from 1644 to 1835, compiled from books, papers, and other sources.

The current issue (No. 57) of the Proceedings of the U. S. Naval Institute at Annapolis contains a very interesting account, by Lieut. W. W. Kimball, of the so-called "experimental ammunition cart" invented by himself for the Ordnance Department. Several plates show very clearly how a two-wheeled cart drawn by a horse is resolvable at will into two single-wheelbarrows, propelled by two men, with automatic-delivery action. After the battle, these barrows can be used for transporting the dead or wounded. The mechanism is as simple as it is ingenious.

In the last *Petermann's Mitteilungen* Prof. Woeikoff gives some of the results of a Russian expedition in the summer of 1890 for the exploration of the Black Sea. The greatest depth observed was 2,618 metres not far from the middle of the southern coast. Its mean temperature is surpassed only by the Red Sea, the Mediterranean, and the Sulu. There is very little life to be found at a greater depth than 180 metres, while the bottom of the deepest part is covered with the remains of organisms which are assumed to have existed before the breaking through of the Bosphorus and the introduction of the salter water of the Mediterranean. The electric light was used to test the transparency of the water, which was found to be greatest in the northern part. There is also an account of a trip in Somali-land in which the writer speaks highly of the progress made by the English in developing trade with the tribes of the interior. This has been done by protecting the great caravan-routes and indemnifying for losses by robbers. Within the past few years trade has greatly increased and well repays the cost of garrisoning and governing the Somali coast. Dr. Mitzopulos contributes a list, with some descriptive details, of seventy earthquakes observed in Greece and Turkey during the year 1890. From this it appears that the greatest number, fourteen, occurred in July, thirteen in April, and eleven in February. November was the only month free from shocks, and in December there was only one. The worthy Doctor naïvely remarks at the end of his communication, that "it is to be hoped that next year our catalogue of earthquakes will be *larger* and more exact"!

The current Proceedings of the American Antiquarian Society (vol. vii., part i.) is exceptionally varied and readable. We can instance only Mr. Samuel A. Green's paper on the disputed boundary between Massachusetts and New Hampshire, in the defining of which the latest Commission could only agree as to the portion between the sea and the Merrimac River; Mr. Charles C. Smith's paper on "Financial Embarrassments of New England Ministers in the Last Century"; and President Stanley Hall's graphic "Boy Life in a Massachusetts Town," a valuable summary of New England domestic, industrial, and social ways within the memory of people yet living in Berkshire County, Mass. Dr. Hall, who draws largely for his picture upon his own experience, tells a number of racy Yankee stories.

Following close upon the completion of the fourth edition of 'Meyers Konversations Lexikon' (Leipzig: Bibliographisches Institut; New York: Westermann) comes a yearly continuation for 1890, forming an eighteenth volume. Except that topics of the day will naturally receive greater stress, the supplement differs

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in no essential respect from the main work. The minute watchfulness of the editing is shown (in the two parts before us) by fresh entries under Samuel Adams, J. Q. Adams, and Mrs. Stowe, in order to mention the atest biographies of these personages. New articles are given to Dr. Herbert B. Adams, Edward Bellamy, and S. G. W. Benjamin—to choose again only American examples. The three chief congresses of the year, viz., the Americanists, the Anthropologists, and the Berlin Labor Conference, are treated with much fulness, the last occupying twelve pages, to say nothing of other labor articles, and of a long one on the condition of the poor, with special reference to Germany. The exhibitions are treated under one head. Noticeable also are the articles Aluminium, Archæological literature (1885–1890), Argentine Republic, Railroad Depots (with plates), Population historically considered, Bacteria, and Bismarck. Part ii. ends with Böhm-Bawerk, who, it seems, has just entered his forty-first year. Apparently six or seven parts will make up the volume.

The questionable system of admitting students to college on "certificate" has spread so far that, we believe, it includes every college in New England except Harvard and Yale. The system prevails, if possible, more thoroughly among Western colleges than among Eastern. Adelbert College of Western Reserve University, at Cleveland, has not determined to receive no more students by certificate, but it offers rewards for passing its entrance examinations sufficient to induce first-rate students to take these tests. It offers $100 to the student who passes the best examination in all subjects next June, and $50 to each student who passes the best examination in Greek, Latin, Mathematics, and English respectively.

The Department of Library Economy in the Amherst (Mass.) Summer School will be conducted by Mr. Wm. I. Fletcher, the librarian of the College, from July 7 to August 10. There will be daily lectures in the afternoons, and the class will be treated as if beginners. Forenoons will be devoted to practice work under Mr. Fletcher's supervision. The fee is ten dollars for the course, in regard to which Mr. Fletcher may be addressed at Amherst, and Mr. Elmer P. Smith in regard to board.

Professor George Hempl of the University of Michigan writes us from Ann Arbor: "Can any of your readers inform me whether anywhere on this continent there still exists a difference in the pronunciation of *know* and *no;* in other words, has initial *k* before *n* left any trace?"

—The April *Atlantic* offers nothing else so high in quality as Mr. Parkman's second article upon the siege of Louisbourg in continuance of the extraordinary history of that achievement of the New England militia, and in these pages is found in abundance the local coloring which lends such contemporaneity and vitality to the author's works. A second historical paper deals with the tale of Arnold Winkelried, with the purpose of discovering whether this Swiss hero is as mythical as Tell, but the writer comes to no definite conclusion. Mr. Benjamin's paper on the Armenians attempts to show the relation of the people to the Turkish Government, and gives some reasons why they have more to gain from submission to a rule which he declares not a harsh one than from revolt and the ambition to become an independent state for Russia to swallow up. Mr. Percival Lowell describes some good mountain-climbing in Noto, and Prof. Wright contributes a geological history of the Pacific slope, with some concluding pages on the antiquity and genuineness of the prehistoric relics of man found under Table Mountain. Miss Burt, whose propagandism of reform in the matter of juvenile education we have several times had the pleasure of noting, makes a very effective contrast between the stories which children are now compelled to read in their reading-books and those which might be drawn from the myths and poetry of good literature as well adapted to interest the young and to stimulate their minds. More unfit reading than the pieces which she quotes cannot be found: they represent the lowest point of written speech possible to man; and if all that were needed were to show the need of a change, her work would be done. The real difficulty is that the teachers are generally as ignorant of the resources of good literature as the untaught children themselves, and have not the original mental force required to make the experiment unless their text-books are changed. Mr. Clinton Scollard's poem deserves a welcome as an attempt to write something better than the flimsy little lyrics and trifling verses to which our younger poets have mainly given themselves. The blank verse is in places melodious and full, but does not flow continuously, owing mainly to its being chopped up into too short sentences or phrases that break the rhythm of the lines. In fact, the blank verse is that of two different styles—Tennyson's and Aldrich's—imperfectly fused; but technical mastery will come with practice to any poet with an ear for melody even in this most exacting form of poetry.

—The *Century* contains a few pieces by Mr. Lüders, whose recent death put an end to his promise, and among them the first poem is remarkable for the successful attempt to write an unrhymed lyric so musical that the rhyme shall not be missed. Collins and Tennyson are the most admirable composers in this difficult form, and in the present piece it is easy to see that the melody is wholly the latter's; but it is an excellent imitation, and the earlier part has original poetic value in the sentiment. The literary article upon the Wordsworths and De Quinceys is belated, coming after the publication of the matter it contains in the memorials recently noticed by us at length. In the two papers upon Mt. St. Elias we have a much fuller treatment of this geographical subject than was lately given by *Scribner's*. The California historical articles have the usual large space assigned them, and the same interest as ever; and the French Salon papers, illustrated by several striking portraits, are of the ordinary sort. In the way of illustrations, Mr. Cole's reproduction of Leonardo da Vinci takes precedence of everything. An article on the fetishes of the African tribes also deserves mention for its definiteness and its curious interest.

—*Harper's* continues its army series with a lively account of the French Army by Gen. Lewal, accompanied by a number of spirited illustrations of the different branches of the service. This very solid paper is followed by another on the State of Wisconsin by ex-Secretary Vilas, in which he describes its history and resources with the State pride natural to the occasion, but with no unjustified claim-making. The bacteria are the topic of a third paper of similar weight; and the nature of these microbes, their culture in the laboratory, and the state of scientific knowledge respecting the species that are harmful to man, are set forth in an interesting and untechnical manner. At the close the spirit of hopefulness with regard to our greater control of disease in consequence of these investigations is noticeable. Dr. Waldstein contributes an account of the Meiningen Court Theatre, which he regards as the most significant product in the recent development of the stage; he describes its methods of training in some detail, and the modes by which its peculiar effects are obtained, and winds up with some very pertinent general observations on the excess of present writers, painters, and musicians in directing attention to the way in which they produce their work, instead of leaving the work itself after completion to be its own justification.

—*Scribner's* opens with a concise history of the "Ocean Passenger Service," containing an account, not too closely comparative, of the accommodations offered for both cabin and steerage travel by the great lines. Dr. Dwight's paper upon "Right-Handedness" is of extreme interest because of the variety of the scientific information included in it and the number of theories passed in review. The principal point made is the showing that right-handedness is only one incident in the general right-sidedness of the body with its correlation in the larger size of the left lobe of the brain. Dr. Dwight includes also a discussion of the symmetry of the face and the parallelism of the fine markings on the finger-tips—a trait sometimes used for the identification of criminals. More important, however, than either of these interesting articles is that on the Indian outbreak, of which the conditions and course are temperately told by Mr. Herbert Welsh, with the usual deductions of the need of a changed method of administration of Indian affairs; and with this in philanthropic interest stands the impressive story of the rise and growth of that charity of the Fresh-Air Fund, which from so humble a beginning has spread of its own power over a large part of this country and Europe. The instances of permanent good done by this Fund which the author, Mr. Willard Parsons, cites, are powerful and often touching, and show what great results for individual lives may flow from so small an expenditure as two or three dollars on a child's welfare. It is hardly possible but that this charity should grow rapidly and be plentifully supported by subscription. The worst fact brought out is that only one-third of the children examined are found fit to go into clean and decent homes, owing to their foul physical condition.

—Are the Memoirs of Talleyrand authentic? This question is asked with directness and much emphasis in the *Revue Bleue* of March 14. In the most prominent place in that number appears an article by M. F. A. Aulard, who sets forth the difficulties in the way of belief in the authenticity of the Memoirs with such clearness and logical force as must cause misgivings to spring up in every reader's mind. M. Aulard, who, since 1886, has been Professor at the Sorbonne of an historical course on the French Revolution, divides his article into two parts: in the first he takes up some difficulties that the preface to the Memoirs presents; the second he devotes to the consideration of some extraordinary historical blunders in the body of the book. In his preface the Duc de Broglie informs us that M. de Bacourt, to whom Talleyrand had committed his papers, took the pains to copy the Memoirs with his own hand and prepare them for printing. This copy forms four volumes, and its faithfulness is attested, for the first two volumes, by Talleyrand's niece, the Duchess of Dino, and for the third by a certificate by M. Bacourt himself. As to the fourth, M. de Bacourt died before he had finished copying the parts that make it up. It is from this copy that M. de Broglie has

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printed his book, and he says, and is to be believed when he says, that he has made in it "no retrenchment nor modification of any sort." But is M. de Bacourt's copy exact? Does it conform to the original manuscript? Does the original manuscript still exist? Where is it? Has the Duc de Broglie compared it with the copy? All these are important questions—the very first that are asked when a text is in dispute. But M. de Broglie does not offer any answer to them. It is difficult to believe that he has had the manuscript in his hands and read it and yet neglected to mention the fact in his preface. If he is silent on this capital point, it may be that he has never seen Talleyrand's manuscript at all; and, if he has not seen it, it is most likely that he does not know where it is. The Duchess of Dino and M. de Bacourt were the most honorable people in the world; but the Duchess was by birth a De Courlande, imbued with contra-revolutionary prejudices, and might she not have thought it lawful to conceal from the public certain portions of her uncle's life on which she looked with horror? And as to M. de Bacourt, does the Duc de Broglie really hold him to have been always a faultless editor, and believe that, for example, he published in its full integrity the correspondence of Mirabeau with Lamarck? M. de Broglie is obliged to recognize the fact that great liberties have been taken even with the copy made by M. de Bacourt. In one place there is a lacuna where eight whole leaves have been torn out. This occurs at a delicate point, just where Talleyrand says that he is about "to make known with exactness the degree of consanguinity that existed between Louis XVI. and the Duc d'Orléans." Then, besides, there is the doubt that is raised by the stories that have been told about the robberies committed by Talleyrand's secretary, Perrey. Some account has been given of these in our columns, and remonstrance was also made by a correspondent, and a denial of them. But M. de Broglie, at least, appears to believe that Perrey carried away with him to England very important papers belonging to his master; and among these, it was said, was a considerable portion of the Memoirs—perhaps the most interesting part of all, the satiric portraits of more than a hundred of Talleyrand's contemporaries.

—So far we have followed M. Aulard very closely in his remarks upon the preface to the Memoirs. We must pass much more hastily over his strictures upon the body of the volume. He finds some ground for suspicion in the change in style which marks the beginning of the account of the Revolution. The account of Talleyrand's earlier life is a masterpiece of narration, quick, bright, alert; but as soon as the epoch of the Revolution is reached the pen becomes heavy, and the style dull, almost dead. In a letter to M. d'Hauterive, Talleyrand says that he has given in the Memoirs an account of the part he took in the Constituent Assembly, and he repeats this statement in the Memoirs themselves, but when the reader comes to the place where this account should be found, it is not there. In place of it appear some lines that "seem as if copied—and ill copied—from some biographical dictionary." The same observation, M. Aulard thinks, might be made upon the account of Talleyrand's entrance upon diplomatic life at the time of his journey to London. There are also mistakes that no man of the Revolution could have made, such as calling the Department of Paris the Department of the Seine. But the master-blunder is made about Carnot, whom the Memoirs represent as being a general in the year 1800, and as having been cruelly exiled to Cayenne! Over this *bévue* M. Aulard simply holds up his hands in exclamation marks. It is not at all M. Aulard's belief that the whole Memoirs are a cheat; much, the most, of them he believes authentic. But he believes that many false and spurious passages have been interpolated in them. Nor does he make any question of the good faith of the Duc de Broglie; that is above question. But he does find him lacking sadly the perspicacity which the editor of such a book as the Memoirs ought to have, and he thinks, too, that he is bound with as little delay as possible to inform the public exactly where the Talleyrand manuscript now is.

—It was rather because he was quite the last survivor of the great epoch of Romanticism than because he was a writer of smooth verse and of not unpleasing comedies, that the death of Théodore de Banville, which occurred in Paris on the night of March 12-13, calls for some brief notice. He was celebrating with his friends his seventy-first birthday (on March 14) when a stroke of apoplexy ended his life. He was brought up in the school of Victor Hugo, of Lamartine, and of Musset; they were the masters who taught him to write and to think. His first book of verse, the 'Cariatides,' appeared in 1842, and was followed by a score of others in prose or verse, the titles of which need not be set down here. Nor need we discuss, as some of the Paris journals do, whether he was more Goth or more Greek. To foreign eyes perhaps he seems to have been neither. Some relationship between him and André Chénier might, we should think, be made out, though he was unlike Chénier in a certain quality of virtuosity that appears in his verse. He was, in fact (as has been said), the first of the Parnassiens as well as the last of the Romanticists. Hence not so much a great loss to letters is widely deplored in Paris as the loss of a man who was much loved by many friends. Personally, Banville must have been very charming. Something of this is to be seen in the photographs of his pleasant face, and more is to be detected in the note of affectionate sorrow which lets itself be heard in all the notices of his death that we have seen. He lived very quietly, in lodgings, among friends and flowers and books, happy in his life, and also, perhaps, *felix opportunitate mortis*—for it must be a sad thing to be the last survivor of a dead school.

—The Independent Theatre of London gave its first performance on March 13. If one can judge of its future by the success of its opening venture, it bids fair to have as prosperous a career as the Théâtre Libre of Paris. Of course, M. Antoine's experiment is really responsible for this new departure in the London theatrical world. The object of the Independent Theatre, as of the Théâtre Libre, is to encourage the performance of plays which have a literary and artistic rather than a commercial value, to counteract the demoralizing influence of long runs, and to give young dramatists the chance to test their talents. There is no quarrelling with this object. If a draught of fresh air, as it were, was wanted to give new life to the French theatre, how much more is it needed to clear away the stifling atmosphere of sentiment and melodrama and convention that prevails on the London stage! The question of actor-managers, long runs, and concessions to the Young Person and British Matron has lately been gone into so thoroughly that it is useless to do more than refer to it. On the stage, where commercial success cannot be ignored, the initiative movement towards reform could not very well be expected. It had to come from outside. It is a significant fact that the leader of this movement is not an Englishman, but a foreigner. Mr. J. T. Grein, the founder and literary manager of the Independent Theatre, is a Dutchman, a journalist living in London, and an enthusiast in all that relates to the drama. He has succeeded in interesting a sufficient number of people to raise the money necessary for his venture. Like the Théâtre Libre, it is a private enterprise entirely; for though, as Mr. Grein plaintively explained, it is not his intention to defy decency and morality, it is likely that his and the Lord Chamberlain's standards of dramatic propriety may not always agree.

—Only members of the Society or invited guests can attend the performances of the Independent Theatre, and it was no easy matter to secure an invitation for the opening night. The play selected for this occasion was "Ghosts," the most powerful, though not perhaps the most dramatic, of all Ibsen's dramas. No actors of note took part in it, it was but indifferently well interpreted, and yet, we are informed, the power of the dramatist made itself felt. One might doubt the advisability of putting "Ghosts" on the regular bill at a popular theatre, but there was no denying that the experiment of actually producing it on the stage was intensely interesting. It alone would justify Mr. Grein's attempts at theatrical independence. Whether he will accomplish all that he hopes to for the English drama, however, is quite another question. The list of plays he announces in his répertoire are chiefly translations. Now, Antoine in Paris has not hesitated to produce the work of Russians and Norwegians and, indeed, all foreigners; but he has relied chiefly on the dramatic creations of Frenchmen—of Zola, Hennique, Catulle Mendès, the De Goncourts, and a host of others of equal literary distinction. But who are the Englishmen upon whom Mr. Grein must depend? Original plays have been promised, he says, by Messrs. George Moore, W. Wilde, Cecil Raleigh, J. Zangwill, C. W. Jarvis. And what hope does such a list hold out? It may be that the Independent Theatre will, in the course of time, develop the independent dramatist. But until it does, the real attraction of the English Théâtre Libre will be the opportunity it will give to see foreign plays which otherwise would never be presented to the British public.

THE GENESIS OF THE UNITED STATES.

The Genesis of the United States: A Narrative of the movement in England, 1605-1616, which resulted in the plantation of North America by Englishmen, disclosing the contest between England and Spain for the possession of the soil now occupied by the United States of America; set forth through a series of historical manuscripts now first printed, together with a reissue of rare contemporaneous tracts, accompanied by biographical memoranda, notes, and brief biographies, collected, arranged, and edited by Alexander Brown. With one hundred portraits, maps, and plans. 2 vols. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1890.

THE complete title of these noble volumes is accurately descriptive of their scope. The editor has labored with enviable success to make his work as complete a history as is now possible of the movement in England which resulted in the plantation of North America

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by Englishmen; to give the narrative with the evidence, and the actors therein with their lives and portraits; to enable the reader to see the events and personages pass before his mind's eye almost as they passed before the Londoner of 280 years ago. The work is especially devoted to the period included between the return of Weymouth to England in July, 1605, and the return of Dale in June, 1616, or the period of "The First Foundation."

Mr. Brown's method is as follows: He first introduces the reader to the movements anterior to those of the years with which he is specially concerned, in a sketch of what had been done by Englishmen in the way of discovery and colonization prior to 1606. In this preliminary sketch he traces the motives which governed the Virginia companies when they first undertook to plant colonies in America. He makes London the scene of his narrative in order to enable the reader to observe events as nearly as possible from the centre of influence which guided them. He next rapidly accounts for the sources of information which now exist, and indicates not only their intrinsic value, but their importance relatively to such original records as have not been preserved. The material now available is shown to be, in part, of secondary value compared with the early records of the Virginia companies, which were kept under the supervision of some of the best business men of the time and were evidently very complete. In referring to these inaccessible records, Mr. Brown advises the reader that the story of American beginnings has been based almost entirely on the evidence of opponents or enemies of the managers who established the first English colony in America. In 1787 Thomas Jefferson, who was as well informed in the premises as any man, knew of only five documents written during 1606–1616. In 1857 only twenty-seven of the contemporary papers had been printed in America; at the latter date the repositories of the Old World began to open their doors more freely, and since then the accumulation of evidence has been more rapid. Before the publication of Mr. Brown's volumes, seventy-one documents referring to this period had been published in the United States. To these Mr. Brown now adds about three hundred.

In presenting this mass of evidence, he has adopted the following classification: (1.) Manuscripts which have never before been printed; printed in full, regardless of their length. (2.) Printed papers which never have been reprinted either in England or in America. (3.) Manuscripts in foreign languages, of which translations into English have never before been printed. (4.) Manuscripts and printed papers which have appeared at a later date in print, but not in America. Classes 2, 3, and 4 are represented in full, except in some instances when the length renders this impracticable; in such cases extended extracts are given. (5.) Manuscripts and printed papers which have been printed in America. In this division, only the briefer papers are reproduced, but careful reference is made to the longer ones, and full account is given of the American reprint, including, in most instances, estimates of the probable market value of originals. (6.) Illustrated material of various descriptions, from the familiar scene of 'Westward Ho' to extracts from sermons, broadsides, and the variety-theatre doggerel of the day.

The feature of these volumes which will be of most constant assistance to critical students of the period is doubtless the collection of brief biographies, filling 250 pages. No casual reference to the titles in this collection can suggest more than the most superficial estimate of the amount of labor which the collation has cost. These biographical notices constitute a thesaurus richer than any previously available authority, and containing information in many cases entirely new, even to specialists. Altogether, it will be a more reliable guide to the biographical facts connected with the period than any single library in the United States.

The most obvious excellence of the work is the clearness of perspective gained by adopting London as the vanishing point. There is a unity and integrity of view which is, at once, natural in the combination and arrangement of details and ideal in exclusion of distractions. In these documents the enterprise is not only a vivid panorama; it is a drama, developing with the unity and precision of Elizabethan models. The determination of thought and adventure towards the New World appears in this delineation not as evidence of some single interest, nor as manifestation of some isolated principle, to which the historian is always tempted to reduce phenomena in his interpretations. The swinging of this new planet into the orbit of English life seems, on the contrary, to have caused perturbations in every part of the social system. Statesmanship, religion, commerce, patriotism, sentiment, are each thrown from their track and compelled into new courses. The English nation, as a whole, adjusting itself to relations which amount to a new social condition, is, accordingly, the picture which these volumes exhibit.

One scarcely begins to consider the material in this collection without becoming aware that Mr. Brown has contributed hardly less directly to the elucidation of diplomatic history than to the story of British expansion and American beginnings. For example, it has been the traditional belief that, from John Cabot to Sir Humphrey Gilbert, England claimed America north of Florida by virtue of the alleged Cabot discovery of 1497, in denial of the Spanish claim by right of Columbus's discovery in 1493 and the bull of Alexander VI. Mr. William Wirt Henry, in the 'Narrative and Critical History' (vol. iii., p. 106), seems to acquiesce in this view; and we notice that Mr. Hannis Taylor, in his recent volume, 'Origin of the English Constitution,' assumes the correctness of that supposition. Mr. Brown shows conclusively, however, that, except under Edward VI., the English Government did not fail to concede America, south of 44 degrees north, to Spain, and that the assertion of rights through the Cabots was at best a late idea, after Elizabeth had determined to make a right to America if she could not find one. Indeed, the very document in which, in 1580, the English Government declares its new doctrine with reference to America, virtually acknowledges that Spain's prescriptive right had not been questioned. The language is:

"That they could not acknowledge the Spanish right to all that country, either by donation from the Pope, or from their having touched here and there upon those coasts, built cottages and given names to a few places; that this, by the law of nations, could not hinder other princes from freely navigating those seas, and transporting colonies to those parts where the Spaniards do not inhabit; that *prescription without possession availed nothing.*"

In the clause which we have italicised we have a summary of the English case, so far as it professed to oppose to the Spanish claims a doctrine of international right; and this doctrine was not inherited from Henry VII., but was evolved at Elizabeth's council table.

Still further, the documents here collated exhibit the exploration and colonization of Virginia as a more important factor than has hitherto been realized in the game of war and diplomacy between Romanism and Protestantism. In this connection the eighty documents copied from the archives of Simancas have a manifold value. Dr. Curry, in securing the copies of the documents, and Prof. DeVere, in translating them from their archaic form, have enabled Mr. Brown to present a mass of evidence the importance of which he has certainly not overestimated. These papers make it possible to reconstruct the whole history of the period so far as it concerns the diplomatic value of American colonization. Mr. Brown furnishes in these documents abundant justification of the claim which he might have made, that we are, with their assistance, better informed about the relations of colonial enterprise to general European affairs than were the majority of the persons who were actively engaged in that undertaking.

The documents thus collected testify unexpectedly to the multitude of motives—scientific, economic, political, and religious—which combined to incite colonial enterprise. The economic character of the attempted plantation had apparently been understood before, but in the material now brought together there is a wider view than any which had previously been clearly perceived. The fact that the planting of colonies in America was looked upon by many religious people in the character of a religious crusade, is also familiar; but that these elements combined in exercising such an influence upon the imagination of all classes of English society as is evident from many of the documents thus presented, will astonish many to whom the movements of the period have long been subjects of study. For instance, the sermon of Symonds (p. 288) suggests a class of motives which have been frequently overlooked, and to which an inferior degree of importance has been attributed. We find in Symonds's discourse almost a paraphrase of the language which tradition has put in the mouth of Pope Urban at Clermont when he urged upon the poverty-stricken people the policy of forsaking overpopulated France for the land of Palestine, "which flowed with milk and honey." The same appeal, overpopulation in England and abundance in America, is combined with the motives of religion to make the reasons for participation in the Western enterprise irresistible.

Again, Mr. Brown has substituted for the Capt. John Smith superstition honor to a multitude of founders to whom honor is, doubtless, due. He even barries the memory of the dubitable hero with a savageness of irony quite exceptional and somewhat startling in a work of this class. No longer ago than 1884, Mr. Arber, in his preface to the works of Capt. John Smith, in the "English Scholars' Library," wrote:

"Some, of late, would have him to be the Baron Munchausen of his age; others, its swaggering and boasting *Pistol;* but this unmerited cloud of detraction and discredit with this volume passes away for ever. . . . One cannot read the following series without seeing that John Smith was something more than a brave and experienced soldier. Not only in his modesty and self-restraint, his moderation and magnanimity, his loyalty to the King, affection for the Church, and love for his country, did he represent the best type of the English gentleman of his day, but he was also a man of singular and varied ability. . . . Inasmuch, however, as the accuracy of some of Capt. Smith's statements has in this generation been called in ques-

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tion, it was but our duty to subject every one of the nearly 40,000 lines of this book to the most searching criticism, scanning every assertion of fact most keenly, and making the text, by the insertion of the multitude of cross references, prove or disprove itself. The result is perfectly satisfactory. Allowing for a popular style of expression, the text is homogeneous; and the nine books comprising it, though written under very diverse circumstances, and at intervals over the period of twenty-two years (1608-1630), contain no material contradictions. Inasmuch, therefore, as wherever we can check Smith we find him both modest and accurate, we are led to think him so where no such check is possible."

Mr. Brown is, of course, perfectly familiar with Mr. Arber's work, and frequently refers to it, though not directly to the passages here quoted. Nevertheless, he calmly endorses the Munchausen and *Pistol* similes, and adds at least *Sir John Falstaff* and Alfred Jingle. In commenting upon Smith's 'Description of New England,' Mr. Brown remarks, for example:

"He tells the Adventurers for New England as to his being taken prisoner at sea in 1615, 'with foure men of warre provided as they were, they had been sufficient to have taken Sampson, Hercules, and Alexander the Great, no other way furnisht than I was'; but this peer of 'Sampson, Hercules, and Alexander the Great' overlooks the fact that his ship escaped, while he alone was taken. After this incident, he seems to have been dubbed '*Admiral*' by the North Virginia Company; but they trusted him with no more ships!"

Again, in commenting on Smith's letter to Queen Anne, and especially the account of the Pocahontas incident, Mr. Brown ventures the following:

"It was one of the afterthoughts of Smith's general history. Smith was a negative hero. He praises himself and abuses his peers, which heroes are not wont to do. He does not save women, as heroes usually do; but women save him, in every quarter of the globe, save Africa —Turk, Tartar, and Indian.

"Why did he slight the negro? He was as much a character of his time as Thomas Coryat and Artherus Severus Nonesuch O'Toole, and evidently afforded as much amusement to the poets and wits of the day."

In a later note, referring to the ostensible purpose of the letter to commend Pocahontas to the Queen's favorable notice, Mr. Brown adds:

"The success of the movement for establishing English colonies in America never depended on John Smith or Pocahontas, but it seems that the managers of the enterprise valued the services of Pocahontas much more highly than they did those of Smith, and Smith himself was probably fully aware of this fact. . . . She was brought over by, and was an object of great interest to, people of far greater influence than Smith. The letter was superfluous so far as the interests of Pocahontas were concerned, and the writer seems to be well aware of this fact, for although it is written ostensibly in her interest, it does not lose sight of the interest of Smith for a moment. Charles Dudley Warner well says, 'Fortunate is the hero who links his name romantically with that of a woman,' and this was Smith's forte; according to his account, 'he was rescued and protected and felt reliefe from that sex in his greatest dangers,' in nearly every quarter of the globe."

The evidence of Smith's incorrectness is not fully presented in these volumes, but they contain material sufficient to justify the above conclusion that, if such service were necessary, Mr. Brown has rescued the other founders from the ingratitude inevitable so long as Smith's monopoly of credit continued. We are inclined to the opinion that, in his excessive zeal for justice towards Smith's superiors and associates, Mr. Brown has needlessly discredited Smith. At all events, the edition of Smith's writings, cited above, together with the documents of Mr. Brown's collection, reduce the evidence to limits within which it at last seems practicable to reach a dispassionate and intelligent verdict.

Throughout his study of these volumes, the reviewer has encountered the rare difficulty of contending against constant temptation to abandon the judicial attitude for the rôle of the eulogist. Mr. Brown has not always confined himself to the presentation of evidence, and it would be easy to challenge some of his expressions of opinion; as, for example, the remark on the first page of the preface: "If the enterprise had then [1605-16] resulted in failure, the United States would not now be in existence." His conclusions often seem to us unauthorized by the data presented, and about many matters of fact these records obviously do not contain the last word. Mr. Brown's work, however, is of such inestimable importance, both as a contribution to knowledge and as a model of method, that it shames microscopic criticism as unsympathetic and trifling, and rather commands the most respectful recognition. Both the pious self-sacrifice of the author and the generous and patriotic coöperation of the publishers deserve unqualified praise. The result is veritable treasure trove for historical scholars, and will be easily conspicuous among our already respectable American *monumenta*.

MIDDLETON'S ENGRAVED GEMS.

The Engraved Gems of Classical Times, with a Catalogue of the Gems in the Fitzwilliam Museum. By J. Henry Middleton, Slade Professor of Fine Art, etc. Cambridge: University Press; New York: Macmillan. 1891.

The subject of engraved gems and signets in general, whether engraved on the hard stones or the softer steatite or finer qualities of sandstones, or even on metal, is one of the most important and fascinating branches of the study of pure art, containing as it does the completest history of artistic development in its earliest epochs, and of classical design down to the Roman epoch, that can be given by any special form of art. The reasons for this are various: the primitive use of the form of the intaglio for giving authoritative sanction to documents; its use for purely decorative purposes as soon as wealth began to accumulate and run in the direction of the encouragement of art; the small size of the designs, which permitted the complete mastery of design earlier than in large works; and more than all, perhaps, the preservation of so many examples intact, from ages of which the important public works were destroyed. It is probable that we have engraved stones of from twenty-five to thirty centuries B. C.; and the Egyptian scarab, which is the earliest form of signet we know of, is found in clay or soft stone as early as the Fourth Dynasty, or about 3,700 years B. C. It is true that the scarab hardly comes within the category of art work, being simply impressed with the symbol appropriated by the owner of the signet and retaining this character as long as Egyptian civilization held out; it only became a work of art under influences alien to Egypt, and whose origin is a matter of dispute—possibly Phœnician, possibly Cretan or Greek—but in any case the use of the scarab was borrowed from the Nile. The reason for its adoption, given by Professor Middleton, is "on account of its [the beetle's] moulding large balls of clay, round like the world, in which it encloses its eggs." As a matter of fact, which it is curious that so close an observer as the Professor should have overlooked, the ball of the Scarabæus Pilularius is not of clay but of dung, on which the young feed when they are first hatched; and the ground of the reverence paid the insect by the Egyptians assumed by him is open to question, as we can by no means assert that the Egyptians knew that the world was round, or that this was even suspected at the date of the adoption of the scarab as a sacred symbol. More likely the adoption was due to the mysterious gifts of the creature; to its forming the sphere, the perfect figure, from which nothing can be taken and to which nothing can be added; to the very mystery involved in the insect's use or purpose in forming it—and when this purpose was discovered, the wonderful intelligence of the parent would increase the sacredness of its attributes; and it has occurred to the writer, seeing the insect in its hurried roaming over the smoothly beaten sands of the shores of the Mediterranean, that the long line of characters which it inscribes as it goes, resembling as it does a line of hieroglyphics, must have added something to the reverence paid it.

But in the adoption of the form as the vehicle of Greek design and the working out of an artistic intention, the insect changes its character and becomes another species: the Pilularius becomes the beautiful beetle with metallic blue wings which is the pest of the fig-trees in Greece and Italy, and the imitation of the specific character of it is as close as, and sometimes far more elaborate than, that of the Egyptian type. This is especially the case with the finest examples of the scarabs known as Etruscan, probably made in Etruria by engravers following Greek traditions. But even this is uncertain; and the most archaic type of the Italian scarab, sometimes carefully realistic in the form of the beetle, but with extremely primitive intaglio, has been pronounced by no less an authority than Prof. Roussopoulos of Athens to be of the Pelasgic period, and produced in Italy before the Greek arts migrated there. An interesting general observation has been made on the excavations at Falerii, where the Greek influence was strongest and lasted longest unmodified in central Italy, viz.: that the scarab of any form was of extreme rarity, while at Chiusi and the cities in which the Etruscan element was absolute and the art least resembles the Greek, the scarab is common. In all the tombs opened at Falerii, not more than half-a-dozen scarabs were found, and these were all of a late period and Etruscan in the character of design.

The section of Middleton's book devoted to the scarab is not full enough to treat that form of engraved stone exhaustively, and it is that which, of all the forms of gems we have, is the most complex and puzzling, and in many cases the most fascinating in its art. Most puzzling, too, though far from the most fascinating of all, are the scarabs in which the archaic method of producing the intaglio obtains, *i. e.*, by a continuous line of drill-holes, which Roussopoulos considers of higher antiquity than Greek art in Italy. Prof. Middleton does not agree with Köhler in his assignment of this class of stones to the period of decadence, "from 280 B. C. to the time of Julius Cæsar," a conclusion which is, to any one who has studied the stones where they are found, simply absurd. The Professor would probably not agree with Roussopoulos either, but one curious fact is, that this class of incised stone is far more commonly found in certain parts of Italy and in Crete than in any other field. The writer once bought from a woman in the mountains of Crete a perforated trilateral prism of steatite with designs, on each face, of domestic animals in the archaic manner, and, learning that they were commonly worn by the women of the district, he inquired the use of them, and was informed that they pre-

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served the milk of nursing mothers. He found also modern imitations of the talisman, but they were not esteemed as of equal virtue with the ancient, which the owners parted with reluctantly.

The ground covered by Prof. Middleton's manual is so broad that it was not possible to treat any branch of the subject in full detail. It is a compendium of the information to be derived from the classical authorities on all matters relating to gem-engraving, and makes a handbook indispensable to amateurs and collectors who have not the Professor's familiarity with the originals. The nature of the materials; the nomenclature of the ancients; the history of the noted gems which serve as standards of comparison, both of the genuine and the counterfeit; the technical methods; and, what will be of especial use to the intending collector and student, the indications which he must look for to guide him in the acquisition of engraved stones, are very full and precise; and useful excursions are made into the regions of coinage and forms of statuary allied to gem-engraving by the character of their design. There is, in fact, no such encyclopædic work on the subject, and every chapter might be enlarged into a monograph on its branch. The amateur who does not yet know the ground will be dismayed by the statements of the precautions taken by the forgers of antique gems, and the pessimistic opinion of the Professor as to his chance of getting an antique of the dealers. And truly there is nothing in the range of archæological material in which such, and so many, frauds have been, and are to-day, perpetrated. The most experienced collector is sometimes met by forgeries so well executed that he requires a long study to decide his doubts, and the time is not always given. There are certain stones as to which he can decide at once that they are antique; and there are certain that the first glance determines to be forgeries; but there are others, and these especially of the Italian Renaissance, which are extremely puzzling, and as to which the judges will perhaps always differ. The 'Engraved Gems' indicates all the artifices of the forger and the best indices of the genuineness of a gem, but after all it is only long experience and frequent blunders that educate the eye, and this education lies mainly in the perception of the character of design, for it is rather in this than in the technique that the best modern and fifteenth-century engraving differs from the antique. Counterfeit antiques are sent from Italy up the Nile to meet the tourists on unexpected ground, as coins are struck in Catania to be sold in Naples and Athens; they are put into the hands of peasants who assure you, in the name of the saints, that they dug them up in their own fields. To the inexperienced buyer the caution of Prof. Middleton will therefore be none too stringent.

The chapters treating of the technique may be considered exhaustive in effect, but on one point we are disposed to take issue with the author. In treating of the tubular drill he discerns its use in gems of the class of the "island stones" (lenticular gems), so called because they are found in the Greek islands—Crete, the islands which lie between that and the Peloponnesus, and the Peloponnesus itself. It does not seem to us by any means assured that the tubular drill was used in the cases in illustration. As these stones must be dated back as far as fourteen or fifteen centuries B. C., the perfection of metal-working implied in the hypothesis that these minute rings, marking the eyes, etc., of animals, are made by tubular drills, seems to us unlikely, the more that they are not necessary, a single graving point of the corundum set on the tool so as to describe a circle of the desired diameter, meeting all the requirements of the case. The Professor considers the fact that the tubular drill was used in Egypt as early as 4000 B. C. conclusive as to its use in Greece, but we know that various arts were practised in Egypt many centuries before they reached Greece, or even Crete, which was civilized before Greece. Pausanias, stating that Callimachus of Corinth was the first to bore stone (λίθους πρῶτος ἐτρύπησε) probably simply recorded the tradition preserved in Athens of the date of its importation from the East; and the fact of its having been known in Egypt centuries before in no way impeaches his statement.

In the Museum of Palermo there is a curious indication of the use of the seal intaglio, in a collection of clay impressions of various seals, found in front of the door of one of the temples of Selinos, in a heap and imperfectly burnt, as if they had been exposed in a conflagration. The lumps of clay bear sometimes a single seal, sometimes two, or even three; but as the temples were not burned, it is supposed that these seals were attached to documents which, having been kept in the treasury, were piled in front of the Temple and burned in a mass, baking the clay incidentally. Some were evidently on contracts, and some bore what seems to have been the seal of the Temple, and others that of the city, combined on the seal with the private signet of the party contracting.

As a manual of engraved gems and gem engraving, the book of Prof. Middleton takes its place with Head's 'Historia Numorum,' and the chief fault to be found with it by the student of archæology is its brevity. It is followed by a catalogue of the gems in the museum of which the author is director, and is sufficiently illustrated by cuts in the text and two plates of phototypes, the former being much superior in their illustrative value and excellent in their way, while the phototypes are below the average of published work of their kind. This is the only defect in the get-up of the book, which has, moreover, an excellent index.

Home Life on an Ostrich Farm. With ten illustrations. By Annie Martin. London: G. Philip & Son. 1890. 8vo, pp. 288.

THIS is a perfect book of its kind. It aims to give no more than a simple description of a South African home, its manner of life and surroundings. Mrs. Martin joins keen observing powers to a great love of nature, both animate and inanimate, and a rare descriptive faculty; and her pictures of the farm life, but, above all, of her dumb companions, are admirable. She is so entirely in sympathy with all about her, in fact, and treats even her hardships and discomforts in such a sunny temper, that the reader receives a more favorable impression of her home than the reality would probably warrant. For, all things considered, the Karroo, as the plateau on which the farm was situated is called, can hardly be regarded as an attractive place. It is a treeless, cactus-covered wilderness, with barren mountains hemming in a plain parched to a dull brown under a "hard gray metallic sky," except for a few days after the infrequent rains, when the veldt is bright with flowers and short-lived herbage. A redeeming feature, however, is the climate, and if to be well is the *summum bonum* of life, evidently the Karroo is the most favored spot on the globe. "No one is ever ill here," is a boast which has some truth in it; moreover, "No one need die of consumption, however advanced a stage his disease may have attained, if he can but reach the Cape Colony and *proceed at once inland*."

The most important, if not the most interesting, chapters in Mrs. Martin's book, which is not a continuous narrative but a series of detached sketches, are naturally those upon the ostrich, a stupid bird which assumes a real individuality, however, under her skilful handling. She gives its biography in detail from the time it emerges from the shell, with its "sweet, innocent baby-face," large eyes, plump, round little body, "not unlike a hedgehog on two legs with a long neck," till its death. Some of her statements are very curious, and show, in one point at least, a remarkable intelligence or developed instinct in the bird. So far from deserting her nest and leaving her eggs to hatch in the sun, as was at one time the common belief, the hen is quite aware of the fact that the sun's untempered heat would be injurious to them. On a hot morning, therefore, when she leaves her eggs as usual for a quarter of an hour, she first places "on the top of each a good pinch of sand. This she does in order that the germ—which, whatever side of the egg is uppermost, always rises to the highest point—may be shaded and protected." It is at this time that the white-necked crow finds his chance for a meal. Unable to break the hard shell of an ostrich egg with his bill, "he carefully watches till the parent's back is turned and she is a good distance from the nest; then, flying up into the air, he drops a stone from a great height with a most accurate aim, and breaks an egg." In the same manner, it may be added, the crow kills for food the tortoise, numbers of broken shells, some of immense size, being found about the veldt.

During incubation the male is very savage, and it is impossible to walk about the camps without a "tackey," a long and stout branch of mimosa with the thorns left on at the end. This is thrust into his face as he is about to charge, so bewildering him that to escape is easy. "Fortunately, you are never assailed by more than one ostrich at a time; for in the large camps of some two thousand acres each—in which the birds are not fenced off in pairs, but live almost in the freedom of wild creatures—each one has his own domain, separated from those of others by some imaginary boundary line of his own, visible only to himself, but as clearly marked out as the beat of a London policeman." The young birds are plucked for the first time when nine months old, but the feathers do not attain their full width and softness till the third year. On the large farms—this one consisted of twelve thousand acres—the birds are "rounded" up for plucking much as cattle on a ranch, the feathers being cut two or three months before they are ripe, to prevent the tips from being spoiled. The age which the ostrich attains is uncertain, "for, however old they become, they never show any signs of decrepitude, nor do their feathers deteriorate." Death is almost always the result of an accident, most frequently from a broken leg. "The bone seems almost as brittle as porcelain; and a comparatively slight blow is enough to splinter it into just such jagged and pointed fragments as result from breaking the spout of a china tea-pot."

It would be hard to find a more amusing set of companions than the dumb inmates of Swaylands. The meerkats, or pencilled ichneumons, the crow, the secretary bird, Jacob—above all, the faithful collie, Toto—are described with infinite sympathy and humor, and are made to seem almost human in their intelligence,

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Some of them were evidently as fond of a joke as their mistress. When she went about the place, she was generally followed by a small train of animal friends. Among these was Bobby, the crow, who "would come up noiselessly behind and, catching the tip of the meerkat's tail in his bill, would lift the little fellow off his legs, take him up a few feet into the air, and drop him suddenly. Then, after waiting a few moments till his victim had recovered his composure and was off his guard, he would repeat the performance." Another of the Karroo birds is the kapok, which builds a curious snake-proof nest out of wild cotton.

"The nest, which is very compact and looks as if it were made of soft, white felt, is of much the same shape as the oriole's brown flask; but near the outlet it is dented in, forming a kind of second or exterior nest, in which the little paterfamilias mounts guard over his household gods, effectually closing the aperture by the pressure of his back against the curving end of the tube above him. The white felt is very thick and firm throughout the globular part of the flask, but gradually diminishes in density along the neck, till at the orifice it is so thin and loosely woven that the soft edges, pressed together by the bird, remain interlaced even after he has flown from his sentry-box. No apparent aperture is left; and the little stronghold is quite impregnable, and ready to baffle the wiliest of ophidian marauders, until Mrs. Kapok, by flying out, reopens the tunnel."

Mrs. Martin does not give a very favorable impression of her English-speaking Africander neighbors. "They are a fine, sturdy, self-reliant race, splendidly fitted in every way for their extremely rough-and-ready surroundings," unsurpassed in their kindness and hospitality, but ill-educated, unprogressive, and with a wofully low standard of business morality. Incidentally she states, without reservation, that "the Cape Colony is the worst-governed country in the world, with the exception, perhaps, of Turkey and Morocco." One of the most entertaining chapters is on "Our Servants," which ought to be read by all who are inclined to despair over the imperfections of their "help." The illustrations, mostly from photographs, are excellent: one of them, representing the best kinds of ostrich-bush, by Mrs. Martin herself, shows that she is as skilful with her pencil as she is with her pen.

Essays in Little. By Andrew Lang. With portrait. Charles Scribner's Sons.

THIS is another of Mr. Lang's journalistic volumes, for though what is not fresh in the book is partly reprinted from magazines, the style of the brief essays is that belonging to the newspaper: they are fragmentary, conversational, rambling, personal, and delightfully clever at their best. The brightest of all, the most admirable in lightness of touch and amiable sufferance of fashions old and new, is the tribute to the once popular but now forgotten song-writer, Thomas Haynes Bayly, author of "Oh no, we never mention her," "I'll hang my harp on a willow tree," "Gaily the troubadour," and countless other smooth-flowing verses which somehow caught the fancy of the piano-playing and song-trolling folk. What was the secret of his success, or how the real thing differs from the facile parody of Mr. Lang into which he constantly falls, may be sought for by the curious; but whether they find it or not, we promise them an entertaining quarter-hour with the "hypnotized" critic.

There are fifteen other papers besides this, and they are mostly upon the author's favorites, such as Dumas, Thackeray, Dickens, Homer, Lever, Kingsley, Scott, etc. They are very informally written, and generally express only the critic's delight in adventurous or boisterous life depicted in literature, in story-telling for its own sake, and in the human interest of great works deficient on the artistic side. If we say that Mr. Lang likes "healthy" books as that word is loosely used, that is the whole story of his criticism; for what appears in his pages is not thought, but his keen personal enjoyment of his author. In the article in behalf of Scott's poetry, for instance, he stops to tell us that he went boating on St. Mary's Lake and took the book along, and then he cites his favorite passages with praise, and thinks Scott was a poet; but there is infinitely more to be said on Sir Walter's side, and to be said not apologetically at all, but with assurance, so that a lover of literature is much dissatisfied to find so inadequate a paper. Mr. Stevenson and Mr. Kipling are the only contemporaries who come in for commendation, and it is a pleasure to notice that, though extravagant at points, it is not undiluted panegyric, such as has latterly brought a part of English current criticism into some discredit.

As a whole, the volume is too incomplete in its method of treatment to take rank above the ephemeral class, but it is both instructive and entertaining within its limits.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Arnold, Sir E. After Death in Arabia. W. S. Gottsberger & Co.
Austin, A. Prince Lucifer. 3d ed. Macmillan & Co. $1.75.
Ballou, M. The New Eldorado. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.
Barrie, J. M. A Window in Thrums.—My Lady Nicotine. Cassell Publishing Co. $1.50 each.
Besant, W. The Chaplain's Secret. F. T. Neely Publishing Co. 25 cents.
Brooke, Magdalen. The Story of Eleanor Lambert. Cassell Publishing Co. 50 cents.
Clark, J. S. A Briefer Practical Rhetoric. Henry Holt & Co. 90 cents.
Dahn, F. Attila the Hun. The Minerva Publishing Co. 50 cents.

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